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ABSTRACT

This manual is divided into three major parts. Part One explores the role and process of planning delivery services to the aging, including leadership. Part Two offers several methods for carrying out each of seven steps delineated in the planning process, and describes their application to the delivery of services for the aging. Part Three focuses on the use of the manual--its special page numbering, dual bibliographies, checklists, etc. (CKJ)

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PLANNING FOR THE AGING

A Manual of Practical Methods

FRANK E. COTTON, JR.

MISSISSIPPI Council on Aging

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PLANNING FOR THE AGING

A Manual of Practical Methods

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PREFACE

The development of the material in this Manual had its origin when the author and his wife, Dr. Gail C. Cotton, a sociologist, were invited to prepare and present a session on "planning" at a seminar for leaders of programs for the Aging. That seminar, held in Jackson, Mississippi, in early 1973, was sponsored by the Southern Regional Education Board and the Mississippi Council on Aging. During the next few months, the same, or modified, material was presented at programs in Atlanta and several locations in Texas.

At each of those programs, there was considerable interest in the presentation on planning, and requests were made for copies of the materials used. A number of persons referred to the general need for useable information and materials on planning for the Aging, and suggested that the materials should be further developed and made available to organizations serving the Aging. Later, the Mississippi Council on Aging arranged with the author for the development of materials useful in planning for the Aging and for these to be compiled in the form of a manual for training and reference.

The Manual is divided into three parts. PART I shows how planning is critically important to the development and operation of programs on Aging and is especially vital to those persons occupying leadership roles in Aging. Then, the reader is taken through a complete cycle of planning, involving each of the seven steps of planning, using a hypothetical case example. PART II takes each of the seven steps and presents them in seven chapters, one chapter for each step. Five or more methods, or techniques, are presented for each step. PART III briefly points out certain features of the Manual that can assist in its effective use, and suggests ways of using the Manual to obtain the maximum benefit from it.

The main body of the Manual is contained in PART II. This is where the methods of planning for the Aging are presented and illustrated. Each chapter, covering one step in planning, has five sections, and each section includes one or more methods of planning. Each section contains at least one exhibit to assist the reader and to use as visual aids in training programs.

The Manual has been prepared in a relatively nontechnical form so that it can be used as widely as possible. Technical jargon has been omitted, where possible, and special attention has been given to producing a clear, readable document. Although the Manual is rather long, it could have been even longer if much, less-relevant material had not been culled. The initial intent was to produce a smaller manual, but it was deemed more important to present and illustrate, in a useful form, those techniques that seemed to be especially applicable to programs on Aging.

It is worth noting that planning is a process. In this Manual, this process is shown as a sequence of seven steps. In reality, these steps are not so separate and distinct, although the activity

of each step is a part of effective planning effort. Activity in several steps may be conducted simultaneously, and certainly there is circular or reciprocal activity among groups of steps. Nevertheless, the steps serve to distinguish the nature of the activities that compose planning, and they help in determining the methods or techniques that may be useful in the planning process.

The methods included in the Manual are applicable to planning for the Aging, in general. They can be used in urban, rural, or mixed environments, and they are applicable in areas of dense or sparse population. They are useful in small or large geographical areas. Nevertheless, certain methods are more useful in certain circumstances than are others. Furthermore, some people will prefer some methods and some will prefer others. While it is not necessary to use all of the methods, it is vital to recognize that all seven steps are required for an effective process of planning.

I am indebted to many persons who have contributed, in one way or another, to the preparation of this Manual. I am especially grateful to Horace Kerr, Executive Director of the Mississippi Council on Aging, and his staff for sponsoring this Manual and for making many excellent suggestions during its preparation. Paul Brown, Director of Planning for the Mississippi Council on Aging, was very generous with his constructive comments, which added considerably to the finished Manual. The Area Coordinators on Aging in Mississippi also provided considerable insight into their problems and needs for planning. Frank Nicholson, Regional Program Director on Aging, Office of Human Development, DHEW, Atlanta, and Charles Wells, Deputy Director of the Office of State and Community Programs, Administration on Aging, DHEW, in Washington, gave invaluable guidance on both form and content, including suggestions for some specific material to include. It was Howard Epstein, Project Director at the Southern Regional Education Board, who stimulated the initial interest in preparing these materials and who has continually given his encouragement and most beneficial suggestions. And my wife, Gail, has been most generous with her encouragement and her professional counsel throughout this effort, without which I could not have authored the Manual. My personal interest in the Aging has been especially stimulated by my Father, F. E. Cotton, whose personal experiences and insight have been immensely inspirational and beneficial to me in preparing this Manual. To the typist, Mrs. Mary Whitmarsh, and the artist, Mrs. Peggy Hawkins, I am personally indebted for their fine work and their patience in working with me.

The preparation of this Manual has been a personal challenge. The field of planning is a professional interest, and the field of Aging is a personal interest. I only hope that the Manual will reach its intended objective.

Mississippi State, Mississippi
July 1975

Frank E. Cotton, Jr.

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PART I

INTRODUCTION TO PLANNING

The purpose of PART I is to show the vital role of planning and how the process of planning actually works.

To achieve this, Chapter 1 explores the importance of planning to the delivery of services, focusing on the delivery of services to the Aging. Chapter 2 shows the relevance of planning to any leadership function, and that leaders must plan effectively if they are to be effective leaders. Chapter 3 takes the reader on a step-by-step journey through a complete cycle of planning, while limiting each of the seven steps to the use of one method or technique. Additional methods are presented in PART II.

PART I provides an essential foundation for PART II. It is necessary to understand the role of planning and to feel comfortable with the process of planning before the many methods of planning can be used properly and effectively.

1. PLANNING THE DELIVERY OF SERVICES

A building that is planned and constructed one room at a time is likely to end up as a maze of space unsuitable for effective living. The same structure, however, planned in advance, even if constructed one room at a time and including timely modifications in the original plans, is likely to be serviceable and efficient.

The same is true with the development (construction) of service programs, including the delivery of services for the Aging. Such programs, planned and developed one project at a time, are likely to be low in both effectiveness and efficiency, even though they might serve some apparent needs. Good projects might serve low-priority needs, and projects serving critical needs are likely to be high cost and relatively unsatisfactorily in the long term.

Basically, planning is the advance preparation of a course of future action. It does not prevent adjustments and even major changes to the plans and prescribed actions as may be needed from time to time. Instead, planning enables efficient movement toward achieving prescribed objectives, while retaining substantial flexibility for adapting to new information and recent turn of events.

Without planning, many possibilities for service projects would be missed because advance preparation would not be anticipated and made in time for the projects. Consequently, planning preserves opportunities for decision making so that administrative action can, in fact, proceed with those developments that continue to appear most likely to serve the most critical needs of the Aging.

It is very frustrating and discouraging to the Aging to receive promises without fulfillment, services today that vanish tomorrow, and vacillations in policy, emphasis, and expectation. Yet, these are results of lack of planning. Without effective planning, these results are likely to occur, resulting in sporadic and inadequate service of the Aging's needs. With sound planning, these uncertainties and empty aspirations can be reduced, often considerably, and certainly to a lower level than is feasible without the planning.

This is not to imply that all planning is good or effective. It does mean, however, that good planning can make possible a higher level of satisfaction of the Aging's needs than is feasible without such planning. It also is intended to suggest that even crude, but genuine, efforts to planning can achieve results that are superior to non-planning. The mere process of thinking ahead, exploring problems, and collective analysis results in decisions that are more likely to be valid and productive.

This Manual is developed to help bridge the gap between aspiration and fulfillment. Provision of services to fill needs of the Aging begins with a desire or aspiration to achieve that objective. Even the addition of resources is insufficient to reach the objective. A plan,

or a process of planning, must provide the course of action that converts potential into reality, resources into services. In summary, provision for the Aging's needs requires all three: desire, resources, and planning.

Planning often is required to find or to justify the resources. This is as it should be, since resources without planning (including accountability) is likely to result in wrong projects, ineffective services, waste, and eventual failure. Failure to plan is an assurance of eventual failure. While planning does not assure success, it does greatly increase the probability of success. Planning reduces the risk of failure; it anticipates future barriers and requirements, and structures a sequence of actions that is most likely to enable the objectives to be reached in spite of the barriers confronted.

This Manual is prepared especially for those in positions of leadership: administrators of programs on Aging at the state, regional, and local levels. It also will be useful to planners who assist, expand, and extend the administrators' planning role. And it will help project leaders and others having responsibilities for exercising coordination, problem analysis, and decision making concerning services for the Aging.

Planning is the first and most important function of the administrator. His other roles cannot be performed, or at least cannot be performed effectively and efficiently, unless he plans, and plans well. Furthermore, he cannot delegate his responsibility for planning. Certainly, he can, and often should, have planners to assist him. But if he assumes that a staff planning service can do his planning for him, he has abandoned his most important role as an administrator. Administrators of Aging programs must plan, and this Manual is to assist them and their staff personnel perform their planning role.

The following are several specific questions about planning which one could ask. Answers to those questions may help to further clarify the needs for planning for the Aging.

a. What do we mean by the term "planning"?

The term "plan" comes from the Latin word "planum," meaning flat surface. Originally, a plan was a two-dimensional representation of an object, such as a building. Use of the term "plan" expanded, however, to encompass a much more inclusive concept: the involvement of human action as well as the physical objects included in the action.

As this transition of the word evolved, it more distinctly implied the concept of futurity: future action. Also, just as there was some type of structure or organization in the two-dimensional representation of a physical object, there also is structure to a plan representing future action. Finally, the futurity of a plan implies that a plan is prepared in advance of the action.

Consequently, as used in this Manual, a plan is a predetermined course of future action. A plan may be used rigidly or flexibly as a guide to future action. As commonly used in the business world, it

is assumed here that plans for use in developing and providing services for the Aging are flexible guidelines. This means that as the future becomes closer, plans are modified to assure their conformance to the latest information and to the developments since the plans were initially made or last brought up-to-date. A plan, therefore, may become a future reality in whole, in part, or not at all. Those decisions are made during the course of action as the future unfolds.

The term "planning" implies the formulation of some type of plans, but it does not restrict the nature of the plans. The plans resulting from planning may be simple or complex, and they may be written or merely in the minds of the people involved.

Planning is a process of formulating predetermined courses of future action. Planning involves a sequence of logical steps that determine how one can go from the conditions of the present to different conditions that are desired at some future date. In this respect, planning results in a plan prescribing future action.

But planning as a process is more than the preparation of a plan for future action. Through the process of planning, people involved in that process gain additional knowledge about the problems, insight into causal factors and potential solutions, understanding of the environment of the problems and the people involved, and vision of the likely future results of various courses of action that are considered.

During the planning process, people gain better understanding of each other and more toleration of genuine differences of opinion. In addition, they gain more understanding of themselves, their own capabilities and limitations. Finally, they better comprehend the infinite extent of knowledge and opinion, and how minute is the knowledge and vision of any individual person.

The planning process, therefore, does result in some form of plans, and these plans represent the best judgment or compromise of a course of action for the prescribed future period. Planning is much more, however, and tends to generate patterns of understanding and cooperation that increase the probability that the plan conceived will be carried out successfully.

b. How is planning applied to the delivery of services to the Aging?

Planning services for the Aging involves the following steps:

(1) Understanding the human environment in which the services are to be developed and provided;

(2) Learning the facts of the needs, resources, and likely constraints;

(3) Identifying the needs to be served;

(4) Determining the objectives of the program of services;

(5) Examining the various possible programs of action that might be developed to provide for the needs of the Aging;

(6) Selecting the course to be followed and expanding it into a detailed plan; and

(7) Evaluating results of the program for corrective action and future planning.

These steps provide a logical approach, to be used flexibly for establishing the general plan and the programs of services and actions tentatively scheduled in the plan. The plan is used as a medium for generating resources and as a guide for developing specific projects. A good plan provides cautions, suggestions for personal contact, and factual responses for questions likely to arise. The plan serves as a sort of checklist, so that activities involving many people and/or organizations can mesh properly to achieve the needed results.

Rigid implementation of a plan is not implied. Periodically, or before proceeding with each major new project, the plan should be re-examined to assure its continued adequacy or to make needed modifications to bring it up-to-date. Furthermore, few plans can prescribe the fine details or anticipate all contingencies that will arise. Consequently, a plan should allow for such unknown possibilities and they must be handled in the implementation stage of each activity.

The planning process is at least as valuable as the plans it produces for guiding programs for the Aging. The process provides ample opportunity for engaging representatives of cooperating organizations in the development of policy and plans that are to involve or affect them. This helps plans to be realistic and to become reality.

Furthermore, the planning process, by being continuous rather than a one-time event, enables the continuous updating, revisions, and adaptation of plans. As unexpected new funds become available, emergency needs occur, or sudden problems arise, it is the planning process that provides the re-examination of tentative plans. This re-examination searches for the best course of future action, taking into account the new developments. It also generates the understanding and compromise by those involved to make the sudden shift of plans feasible and acceptable. It is the planning process that continually adapts the plan to reality and guides its implementation by means of careful surveillance, communication, and corrective action.

Both plans and planning are vital to the delivery of services to the Aging. Planning is not necessary to dispose of money or even to engage services. But effective service of the Aging's needs requires careful planning. Without it, any services provided are likely to be misdirected or ineffective in serving the Aging's vital needs.

c. What are the benefits of planning?

Planning is so vital to successful future activity that it hardly seems necessary to identify the benefits. Yet, many people and many organizations do little or no planning. Certainly, inadequate and improper planning is common, especially since it is difficult to distinguish between "what is" and "what might have been" if planning had been done, and done effectively.

Yet, we know that good planning costs nothing: it pays for itself many times over in the increased successes combined with higher effectiveness and efficiency of the programs and program resources. After one has witnessed the immense productivity of planning, it becomes inconceivable that planning could be neglected. Yet, it is neglected, often.

A few of the many benefits of planning are listed and described below. All of these are evident in planning applied to delivery of services for the Aging. As you plan and see the fertile results of planning, you can add to this list many more specific benefits.

(1) Planning provides action instead of reaction. With planning, you can mold the future; without it, you can only react to it. Planning enables you to anticipate future problems and opportunities and to be prepared to make best advantage of them as they occur. In fact, by planning what you want to happen in the future, you often can change the events that influence the possibility of developing opportunities in the future. Without planning, as the future occurs you can only react to it, doing those things that do not require advance preparations.

(2) Planning simulates the future and eases its burden. When you "think through" the future, you are simulating, or imagining, the events that may occur: their results, their interactions, and their characteristics. In this way, you are able to test various courses of action and see what may happen if those courses are followed. Simulation enables you to choose the course that is more likely to yield the results you want; and it helps you prepare a structured sequence of activity most likely to optimize the results obtained from that course of action.

(3) Planning anticipates future problems and possibilities. Although we cannot predict the future with certainty, we can increase our understanding of the future through planning. This understanding does improve our anticipation of the future and our ability to be prepared for the events that may arise. Without planning, problems may be staggering barriers that could have been avoided, reduced, or overcome by planning. In addition, planning anticipates likely opportunities and enables preparations to be made for taking full advantage of the opportunities when they occur.

(4) Planning reduces gaps and duplication. Planning provides the facts and analysis that allows examining the whole array of needs, resources, and programs. In this way gaps or insufficiencies can be spotted and projects planned or existing programs expanded to fill those gaps. In addition, duplication and overlap are detected, making possible a cooperative or coordinated reallocation of resources to other areas of needs. In Aging programs, there is always room for using resources to provide more needed services.

(5) Planning helps to detect the critical needs and to focus on them. There is no end to needs, but some needs are more critical than others. Planning helps to distinguish the critical from the trivial, or the urgent from the ordinary. In this way, "first things first" can be achieved. Those needs that concern survival, safety, and sanity can

be served first. This does not imply a disregard for other needs, such as those concerning comfort, pleasure, and preference. But it does recognize priorities in allocating limited resources. Planning can achieve that.

(6) Planning assists obtaining resources and effective use of them. The results of planning provide information justifying the resources to be requested, and program a pattern of actions directed to using the resources effectively for achieving the stated objectives. The plan shows the funding sources, the expected use of their funds, and the objectives to be obtained. Often, a well-prepared plan, based on sound data, can cause new funds to be allocated that otherwise would not have been available or even considered. In addition, once the funds are available, the anticipated projects can materialize more swiftly, smoothly, and effectively because the pattern of necessary activities has already been determined.

(7) Planning generates understanding and cooperation. The planning process causes facts and logic to surface, and also provides interaction among concerned people that enables their individual thinking to be shared. Exploring together helps generate more understanding of the facts and more appreciation and tolerance of views of each other. Both of these provide a better foundation for negotiation, agreement, and cooperation than otherwise would likely exist.

(8) Planning enables delegation and decentralization. A plan provides a structure of activities, tasks, and responsibilities, showing their relationship to each other and the sequence in which they need to be performed. This allows tasks to be delegated among other people, as well as the separation of each project from the others. Through the plan, each person and each project and/or organization can recognize his (or its) relation to the others and the needed interaction among them.

(9) Planning assists coordination of related activity. Planning, as a continuous process, serves as a medium of coordination of the several component projects and activity. Through planning, representatives of the participating organizations can communicate with the others, examining the plans and arranging future interaction needed to providing successful operations of all projects. Furthermore, continuous planning allows plans to be periodically modified and adapted to situations as they arise. And as these adjustments are made, the plans enable coordination among the projects to assure the welfare of each.

(10) Planning provides professional interaction and stimulation. Professional people need professional interchange with others performing services similar or related to theirs. There are common objectives, similar problems, shared vocabularies, and duplicate needs. Professional interchange provides opportunity to learn from each other and to reinforce each other. In our dynamic era, it is easy to become professionally obsolete if development within one's profession is not continuous. Interaction among professionals helps achieve this. These contacts, and ideas shared through them, tend to stimulate the professional to even larger contribution and achievement.

These are only a sample of the many benefits of planning. The plans produced by planning yield one spectrum of benefits, while the process of planning also provides invaluable indirect results through the involvement of those engaged in the planning.

d. What happens if we don't plan?

Planning does not guarantee success. Nothing does. It does increase the chances that successes will occur and that those successes will yield results more in line with the objectives desired.

Lack of planning does not guarantee failure. Non-planning does, however, provide a vacuum of preparation, understanding, and vision necessary to take maximum advantage of opportunities as they arise.

Without planning--effective planning--surprises arise more often, disasters are more likely, projects tend to be sub-optimal and short-lived, and there usually is less opportunity for professional reinforcement through interchange.

Lack of planning promotes a kind of competitive anarchy that drains resources without yielding the level and quality of services needed for the Aging.

Finally, non-planning is the best assurance of eventual program disappearance through failure, dwindling resources, or ineffectual services. While programs may succeed temporarily without planning, it is unlikely that long-term success, or even optimum short-term achievement, will be attained in the absence of effective planning.

e. Why plan for an uncertain future?

Uncertainty does not reduce the value of planning; instead, it increases the need for it.

Planning attempts to anticipate the future, but also prepares contingency plans to guide actions in case the unexpected does occur. Plans that do not recognize uncertainty of the future and provide alternative courses of action if major changes occur are not adequate plans.

Furthermore, effective planning also recognizes that there can be sudden occurrences that are completely unanticipated. To accommodate these major events, flexibility and adaptability can be constructed into many program plans. By doing this, the chance of a disaster resulting from such radical changes is reduced.

For example, planning can reduce the impact of major, unexpected cancellation of funds by balancing high-risk funds with a more stable flow of low-risk funds. In this way, should the high-risk funds suddenly be cut off, the low-risk funds would likely continue, not affected by the factors causing termination of the high-risk funds.

f. Does planning restrict future choice?

Planning does not restrict future choice. Instead, it expands the possibilities for future choice by enabling the advance preparations to be made which are necessary to have certain choices available. If these preliminary preparations are not made, the deadline for performing necessary functions cannot be met.

For example, if funds suddenly become available for well-justified projects on Aging, those agencies that have planned effectively will have the facts, prepared their analyses, formulated objectives, distinguished the critical needs, and specified which projects are needed to fill those needs. They may even have prepared the structure and resource requirements of plans for the selected projects, awaiting only last minute updating and completion. Those agencies having such plans are able to provide the prompt response necessary to obtain "short-notice" funds.

Most major activity requires advance planning. And many activities and allocations of funds require such early deadlines that only if adequate planning is completed in advance can such opportunities be available. Furthermore, when there is competition for limited resources, the agency or organization that is prepared, by pre-planning, to provide the best, most adequate justification and can show a readiness for prompt, effective implementation of the project is more likely to obtain the resources.

Emergencies provide another example of the availability of choices through pre-planning. When emergencies arise, prompt action often is essential. Those who have "done their homework," prepared their contingency plans for emergencies, can respond with full advantage of the situation--while others flounder and lose out.

Planning does not close the door to alternative choices. Planning recognizes the futurity of today's decisions. Decisions have futurity, impact over extended periods of time, whether they are planned or not. Consequently, the fact that planning provides preliminary courses of action does not eliminate opportunities not included or even anticipated in the plan. Planning preserves the maximum choice, the full opportunity for decision making. But it also structures a sequence or schedule for making those decisions and helps assure that necessary advance preparations are made so that opportunities for those choices continue to be available.

g. Why not use planning money for providing services?

There is a very large temptation to use planning funds to provide specific, visible services. Planning does not yield a direct product that serves the Aging. As a result, there tend to be pressures to allocate planning funds explicitly to specific project activity or discretely to assist in miscellaneous administrative activity.

The principal justification for use of appropriate funds for planning is that good planning is a multiplier of effectiveness and

efficiency of all components of an Aging program. It is logical to allocate funds where they result in the most benefit to the Aging. The dollars spent for planning should: (1) increase the availability of funds and other resources, (2) assure the allocation of those funds for the right people to develop the right projects to provide the right services to fill the most vital needs, and (3) increase the productivity of the services provided so that the most value in benefits to the Aging are achieved for the funds expended.

If, for example, a program in a region has an annual budget of $200,000, a 20% higher effectiveness in the program due to planning is worth 20% of $200,000, or $40,000. If that is obtained from a planning budget of $20,000, that is a return of $2 of direct services to the Aging for each $1 expended for planning.

Furthermore, as noted earlier in this section, improved productivity of funds and programs is only one of the valuable results of planning. If you list those results, short-range and long-range, you will find that each dollar of funds spent for effective planning will yield several dollars of returns in services to the Aging, directly and indirectly. In fact, those planning dollars could convert potential failure to success, mediocrity to excellence, and pockets of services to a structure of full service.

h. Does planning result in a plan?

Yes, planning usually results in some type of plan. It may be a written plan or stored in the memory of the brain. It may be simple or complex, structured or unstructured, and rigid or flexible.

The plans resulting from the planning process provide a structure or course of proposed action. A plan serves as a focus for teamwork, a basis for training, and a guide to action. Agreements and understandings are types of plans or components of plans. Decisions and actions evolve from plans and rely upon the plans for invaluable input for generating effective decisions and actions.

Plans resulting from planning also serve as the focal point and starting point for the continuing planning process. Without plans, each planning effort can only start with the status of current operations, projecting into the future. With plans, however, the planning process is able to make use of those plans as a starting point, making needed changes and determining special investigations needed to assure adequacy and accuracy.

Thus, while plans do result from planning and are useful directly as a couse for future action, plans also serve as an essential focus for the whole process of planning.

i. What kinds of planning are needed?

Planning can be subdivided in many ways, and three ways of breaking it into components are shown here. Each method provides three components of planning. These are felt to be especially useful in general and specifically in planning for the Aging.

(1) Considerations of time. The time dimension is always important in planning, as planning implies that the future is the time frame on which plans always focus. Three types of plans are important in consideration of time, and these interact with each other.

(a) Long-term plans. Usually these are plans extending beyond one year, and may be less detailed than short-range plans. In some organizations, long-range plans may begin as early as 3 or 6 months in advance or may not begin before 3 or 4 years.

(b) Short-range plans. These are the plans that span the gap between the current (now) and the beginning of the long-range plans. Most commonly, short-range plans cover the period of the year ahead, and with considerable detail. The detail, however, may be less as the distance increases, to be expanded as they become closer.

(c) Cyclical plans. These are standing plans, somewhat equivalent to procedures, that guide activities that tend to repeat themselves periodically. For example, a detailed daily plan for a complete meals program might repeat itself daily. Or, a transportation system may have a monthly cycle based on social security checks, welfare payments, food stamps, recreation programs, and other cyclical activity that is repetitive within a month or less. A public relations plan might take into account elections, vacations, and other activities that cycle on the annual basis or less.

(2) Considerations of direction. Programs are directed by a vital segment of planning. The emphasis, focus, and general approach of the activity are encompassed by this role of planning.

(a) Policy planning. Policies provide the general basis for program planning. They specify the values, ethics, approach, degree of cooperation or competition, and other foundations for guiding other policies and activities.

(b) Objectives planning. If we don't know where we are going, we are most unlikely to arrive there. Objectives must be determined, and sub-objectives (goals) derived from them provide more-specific guidelines to short-term activity. Objectives are essential components of planning, direction, and control.

(c) Strategy planning. Determining and structuring the key elements of a plan determines the success of most or all other elements. The vital, key elements, including major barriers or problems, are the focus of strategic planning. This type of planning identifies the key elements and structures courses of action to assure success in achieving them. The achievement of these tends to assure success of the other elements.

(3) Considerations of action. There are many types of action plans, but three common types applicable to Aging are shown here.

(a) Program planning. This is the planning of specific projects or programs that provide specific services for the Aging. These are

usually development plans that provide guidance for their conception, initiation, development, and stabilizing.

(b) Resources planning. This planning is concerned with funds, facilities, manpower, and other resources necessary as inputs for the program. It usually is both short-range and long-range, as confidence in the future of a program is contingent on the availability of funds on a long-term, continuing basis.

(c) Operations planning. This is short-range planning, primarily, as it is concerned with anticipating near-future problems and needs, and planning the network of activity to attain them.

These various plans mesh together. For example, strategy planning is both short-term and long-term, and program planning, largely long-term, is guided by policies and objectives, but requires strategic planning for assuring program success.

j. How can we get the most from planning?

Good planning is not simple, nor is it likely to be achieved through occasional spurts of activity. Basically, effective planning requires: (1) application of some continuous effort focused directly to planning, (2) attention to the full seven steps of planning, (3) dedication to logic and priorities, and (4) involvement of people highly interested in successful service of Aging's needs.

Sporadic attempts at planning are frustrating and unproductive. Planning, as a process, is continuous. Management, to be effective, must have a base of continuous planning. Otherwise, opportunities are missed, problems are undetected, and corrective action tends not to occur.

All of the seven steps of planning are important. However, the first and the last are most often neglected. We often don't examine and cultivate the human resources, and we often neglect the surveillance and corrective action. As a result of the former, many fine programs never become operative or effective. And as a result of the latter, many operative programs never become effective and many effective programs dwindle to ineffectiveness or demise.

Planning requires logic and dedication to detail, or at least to the stratetic elements of detail. Plans that are not logical, or whose logic is invisible, are less likely to be acceptable to those involved. Planning efforts without dedication are shallow and fruitless.

Participative planning, as the final element, stimulates conciliation and cooperation. At the same time, it provides understanding of the problems and the people, both of which promote cooperation and program success. The participative process can be slow and frustrating, but its results are more likely to yield long-term effectiveness and success.

Certainly, every reasonable effort should be made to make planning effective. It can be effective, and is likely to be if the above four requirements are patiently cultivated into the planning tasks.

The delivery of services to the Aging requires thorough planning if the Aging are to receive the high, consistent level of services they need. Planning is the foundation on which the services are provided. Without planning, effective planning, those services are likely to fail to materialize or fail to be effective.

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2. LEADERSHIP ROLE IN PLANNING

The leader, regardless of his title or responsibility, must plan. If he is an administrator of any activity, at any level, whether executive director or project coordinator, he is a leader of people and human activity. These people expect the leader to be concerned about their welfare: present and future.

The leader of people is a manager. This implies more than coordinating the present activities of people. It means concern with the future and preparing today to confront what may exist in the future. It means concern with the impact of decisions and actions made today, realizing that the impact extends well into the future. Also, it means preparing today for the expected and the possible of tomorrow; otherwise, the options available tomorrow will be fewer and less productive. This is managing. It is leadership.

Leadership can be indirect as well as direct. Usually, we think of a leader as being a person who is directly managing or coordinating the activity of other people. But also one can lead others informally and indirectly through respect others acquire for his vision, capability, power, or prestige, even though he does not supervise people as a part of his activity. Consequently, one who leads through his indirect influence is, in fact, a leader just as is one who leads by directing, coordinating, and administering people and their activity. Both types of leaders--indirect through influence or direct through supervision--require planning to be effective.

This chapter examines the planning role of leaders: their need for planning and how they can use it. Of course, planning must be applied in the manner required by your situation, organization, and problems. Nevertheless, there are some needs for planning that are general and which, if not recognized and applied, often result in leaders losing their positions and influence of leadership. Some of these are examined here.

a. Functions of the Manager

The function of the manager/administrator can be listed as planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling. Or, they can be listed as planning, organizing, leadership, and control. There are other ways of subdividing the management responsibility, but few, if any, would fail to list "planning" as one of the functions of a manager.

An examination of the functions of the manager show substantial interdependence among the functions. Each of them relies on planning to provide a course of action and a coordinative process for achieving the other functions. Without planning, the other functions would have neither the structure nor the process for developing managerial decisions and activity.

The function of planning provides a structure for future activity. This structure relates each activity to the whole and to each other.

It relates the future to the present, the new to the old, the objectives to the needs, and the people to the facilities. The structure allows an examination of future possibilities and a provision for achieving at least the most relevant of these possibilities. And the structure enables the formation of a process of continuous evaluation and corrective improvement.

The function of planning also provides a process through which activity can evolve. The process promotes the development of executive insight and vision through exploration of the problems, the facts, and the setting in a logical, objective manner. The process of planning develops understanding of the futurity of potential decisions, and an increased confidence in the future by a better comprehension of it. Finally, the process provides for the participation of persons needed to generate understanding, compromise, and cooperation.

"Organizing," as a function of management provides for a structuring of people and their functions, responsibilities, and interrelationships. Since the very purpose of organizing is to prepare the people for optimum performance of future activity, it is obvious that planning must precede organizing. Planning provides the policies, objectives, strategy, and specific courses of future action that determine the nature and form of organizing needed.

"Staffing" fills the positions as needed to perform the functions determined by the "organizing" function. Staffing, also, is based on planning, as staffing is an employment and training of people today to accomplish the plans structured for the future.

"Directing" is the direct leadership function. It involves coordinating, guiding, and motivating people to accomplish certain planned objectives. Directing is concerned with actions today that were planned in the past. Planning establishes the objectives toward which people and their efforts are directed. Furthermore, the projects they are directing, the procurement of funds for their continuity, and the principal activities performed under the direction of managers--all are determined through the process of planning.

"Controlling" is the process of evaluation and corrective action, a process that should be developed as a part of a plan. Evaluation is a comparison of results with objectives, and those objectives are established by the planning process. The very concept of control is to assure that performance conforms reasonably well to the plans. Without plans, and the specific goals established by those plans, there would be nothing with which results could be compared. The controlling function would be meaningless.

Thus, we see that the function of planning provides a foundation for the other functions of management. Planning makes the other functions feasible and meaningful. Effective planning makes it possible for the other functions to be effective. Without planning, a manager/administrator becomes solely a coordinator of current activity without concern even for the futurity of the results of that activity.

b. The Role of Leadership

The term "lead" comes from the Anglo-Saxon root "lithan" meaning "to go." A leader, therefore, is one who goes somewhere. But, to go somewhere, one must know where he wants to go, when he can go, and how he should go. Those decisions are determined by planning. Thus, to lead, to be a leader, to perform the functions of leadership, one must plan.

The leader, in the managerial/administrative or in the technical/professional concept, is out in front. Directly or indirectly, others look to him as a guide, and this implies that he guides others into the future. But to be out in front, to guide others into the future, a leader must think ahead. He must chart a course into the future over which he can lead others with confidence and achievement. Such a course is a plan for future action and is developed through a process of planning.

The opposite of the term "to lead" is "to follow." If one follows someone else or the movement of a group or an organization, he assumes that somewhere leadership is being provided. He hopes that the actions are not random, without direction. He presumes that someone or some group has looked ahead--into the future--and charted a rational course that is appropriate for the group to pursue. He hopes that planning has occurred and that the decisions and actions are based on a plan to achieve a group objective. He stakes his future on that planning and that plan.

We see, therefore, that regardless of whatever else the term "leadership" may imply, it always involves the future (as well as the present). Leaders must plan the course through which they will lead themselves and others into the future. Otherwise, the people and their actions are without leadership, even though the positions of direction are filled. To occupy positions of leadership does not mean that the leadership role is being provided. A leader must plan; otherwise, he cannot lead.

c. Planning: A Basis for Decisions

Decisions are made in the present and are based on knowledge of the past, understanding of the present, and anticipation of the future. Decisions determine action in the future and the impact of those actions on the extended future after those actions are taken. Furthermore, the past and the present are included in the basis for decision making largely as a means for better understanding and anticipating the future and the future impact of decisions and actions.

Planning, as a process of exploring the past and the present and of structuring a course of action for the future, is a basis for the making of decisions. One can worry about the future or he can plan for the future. Worry is concerned with inaction while planning is a basis for action.

Since leadership requires the making of sound decisions, and since decisions initiate future actions, we can appreciate the vital

role that planning serves to make rational decisions possible. This role is provided by the process of planning and by the plans resulting from the planning process.

The planning process enables the decision maker to gain the needed insight into the past and the present, and it allows him to examine the results of past decisions and actions. Both of these features of the planning process sharpen the insight of the leader. This insight is one of the characteristics that distinguishes a leader from a follower.

The process of planning also projects the leader through hypothetical journeys into the future. He examines future possibilities, determines what is likely to occur, explores the probable impact of optional courses of future action, and anticipates the problems, barriers, and bottlenecks that may be encountered in the future. This simulated exploration of the future develops vision: an ability (1) to anticipate the results of today's decisions and actions, (2) to make better-than-average forecasts of future probabilities, and (3) to be better prepared for future opportunities and problems. Vision is another characteristic of the leader, and makes it possible for him to lead.

In addition, the planning process provides a medium, an excuse, and a need for people to work together in their preparations for the future. Not only do those involved gain the insight and vision as noted above; they also strengthen their mutual respect and their bonds of interaction and relationship that result in good plans and in a better preparation of those involved for implementing and directing the planned activities. Leadership, in positions of formal or informal direction of people and their activities, implies and requires a finely-developed structure of human relationships. Decisions are hollow, without futurity, unless the essential human relations exist that can and will translate those decisions into actions. Planning can provide for the formulation of these vital relationships.

Finally, planning results in plans, whether or not they are recorded. Those plans, by mutual consent, provide a structure for decentralized decision making that results in actions that mesh together as a coordinated movement toward the objectives. A plan enables details to be developed and decisions to be made with clearer understanding of the role of each and the variations that are permissable. As need for major deviations occur, the results of the available options can be explored more quickly and accurately. And plans enable not only corrective action but also cumulative learning: application to future planning the knowledge gained from evaluating actions resulting from past plans. Leaders develop plans as guidelines to future decisions and actions.

We see that planning does, in fact, provide a very vital basis for decisions. It recognizes the futurity of today's decisions and need for preserving alternatives for tomorrow's decisions. Planning develops insight of the past and present and vision of the future, both of which are essential characteristics of leadership. And planning develops an informal structure of vital working relationships and a

formal structure of a course for future action. Planning is an essential basis for sound decisions.

d. Responsibility for a Rational Method

Leaders have a responsibility to those they lead and to the activities they are performing. Also, leaders are responsible to those they are assigned to serve and to the achievement of the service objectives. Furthermore, leaders have a responsibility to those who provide the resources and for assuring the effective and efficient use of those resources for reaching proper objectives. Finally, leaders are responsible to the public, to safeguard public property, the environment, and the public welfare. Leaders may have authority, but their responsibilities are at least equally as extensive.

It is not easy to meet these responsibilities. Leaders must set their sights on an objective and formulate a course of action to reach it. And they must inspire themselves, their sources of resources, their associates, their followers, those to be served, and at least part of the public. Neither of these is a simple or easy task. Both are achieved by rational planning and the implementation of rational plans.

Planning enables the collective examination of facts and the reasoning associated with those facts. It enables the projection of reasoning into the future, and the provision of a course of future action based on reason and reasoning. The term "rational" means having reason or understanding, being sensible.

Leaders are expected to be rational and to devise and use methods that are rational. Rational methods inspire confidence in the conclusions, decisions, and actions resulting from them.

The process of planning not only is a rational process; it tends to stimulate rational thinking by those who pursue the process of planning. And a plan, resulting from planning, is a rational structure of future activities. Consequently, planning tends to produce rational thinking, rational plans, rational decisions, and rational actions. These are results of the planning process as a role of leadership.

e. Leadership in Choosing the Problem

Much time can be wasted in solving the wrong problems. Also, critical problems can be ineffectively served by diluting effort and resources in attempting to solve too many problems, including trivial or less important ones. Priorities are vital, and especially when the problems involve human lives, health, and safety. Certainly this is the case in the needs of the Aging.

Sometimes it is claimed that when you have determined the problem, you are half way to its solution. There is considerable validity in this claim. Detecting problems, distinguishing the significant problems from trivial ones, understanding the nature and extent of problems, comparing resources required for problem solution to available resources, determining the feasibility and cost of long-term

problem resolution, and making the sometimes heart-rendering decisions (based on the above analyses) as to which problems shall be solved--these are part of the planning process that leads to rational selection of the problems for the focus of resources and attention. Consequently, the same planning process that assists in a rational choosing of the problem, when continued to fruition, provides the course of action leading to the problem solution. Choosing the problem is a milestone in the process to preparing for its solution.

The leader who uses the planning process effectively not only is likely to choose the right problem; he also is more likely to provide for its solution. When the welfare of people is at stake, this is especially important. The need for planning cannot be overstressed when its results are so vital and productive.

f. The Role of Problem Solving

Leaders chart and guide the pursuit of solving important problems. This involves assuring that the focus is on the right problems and that an effective problem-solving process is used. This is implied as a characteristic and a responsibility of leadership.

Some kinds of problems may disappear from inaction: ignoring the problem. This is one type of approach to problem solution, and can be an explicit or implicit decision reached in the process of planning for its solution. Although this is less-than-respectable in its approach to the solution of many problems (including those of the Aging), one should not scoff at this method or fail to recognize its widespread and often disastrous use by respectable people, organizations, and nations. Major problems are rarely solved by ignoring them.

If inaction is rarely successful as a means to solving problems, then action is the alternative. Thus, a rational, problem-solving method is needed. The planning process provides that method. In fact, the problem-solving method and the planning process are basically the same. There might, on some occasions, be preferred a different sequence in the steps of the process. But the process, or method, and its general sequence are the same for planning as for solving problems. This is logical, since we plan in order to reach objectives, and one type of objective is the solution of a problem.

The leader, consequently, in his role of detecting and solving problems, must plan. His selection of the problems and his success in resolving them are likely to be contingent heavily on the effectiveness with which he plans, and involves others in planning. A leader assumes his role of solving problems, and so he selects and uses effective methods for understanding and solving those problems. This is one of his applications of the planning process.

g. Planning of Improvement

Another use of the planning process is the planning of improvement. This can be improvement in a specific service, more-effective results from a program, better relations with the public, lower cost

of a project, more efficiency in the use of funds, better response of the Aging to a service, or many other improvement possibilities.

Improvement, like problem solving, is a goal-oriented activity. It requires the same general steps in order to assure a worthwhile focus and that the results will be achieved effectively. Nevertheless, different kinds of problems and different types of potential improvement may need different specific methods or techniques of analysis. Of course, this also is the case in focusing on different types of projects, programs, and services. The planning process can accommodate a wide range of specific techniques of analysis and methods for improvement.

Improvement is a responsibility of leaders. This implies not only better selection of the goals to be pursued, but also continued improvement in the many facets of the pursuit and in the achievement of the goals.

Improvement can be planned. Many organizations allocate substantial budgets to pursuing improvement, as they often find that each dollar spent for the pursuit results, on the average, in several dollars of net benefits. The leader is aware of this cost effectiveness relationship, and guides his associates through the planning process in a continuous pursuit of improvement.

It is through the planning process that the leader can determine the improvements that should be pursued, how they can best be attempted, who will provide the effort, when to begin, and what results are likely.

The planning process is the approach for pursuing improvement. It is the means by which many options can be examined and the best course for future action to gain improvement is structured. This is a function of leadership. Leaders also realize that planning, and the implementation of plans, enable improvement in the process of planning. It is a self-improvement process.

h. Planning Effectiveness and Efficiency

Planning also is a means for charting a course for effectiveness and efficiency. Increased effectiveness means more complete achievement of the objectives. Higher efficiency is the reaching of objectives with a lower cost of resources. Both are important.

We want programs to reach their goals: providing for certain needs of the Aging, and perhaps other complementary needs. To reach these goals, planning is needed. To reach them effectively, effective planning is required.

The process of planning is a course of action that maps out the course of future action most likely to achieve the objectives, and achieve them effectively. This does not mean that one pass through the steps of planning will accomplish this. It does, however, imply that prudent use of the planning process is a sound means for reaching program effectiveness.

Efficiency, too, can be pursued by the leader, thus providing better justification for the allocations of resources and simultaneously achieving more program results for the resources being used. Cost reductions and cost reduction programs are common in the business world. In competitive circles, they are essential. But they can be just as beneficial in any circles.

Leadership is required, however, if effectiveness and efficiency are to be pursued. In a flow of activity, the ultimate goals often become lost, and extraneous goals creep in to replace them. Too often, the goal of self perpetuation takes over if leadership through planning of effectiveness and efficiency is not pursued diligently and continuously. Examples of this are abundant.

Consequently, it is a responsibility of leaders to pursue their goals effectively and efficiently. The planning process enables them to do this.

Leaders can find many uses for the planning process. The above examples only illustrate how useful the process can be. It is difficult to imagine how leadership in providing services for the Aging could be very effective without extensive use of the process. As one uses the process, and uses it effectively, he finds that it is immensely useful to him and his associates. In fact, one way of developing leaders and leadership capability is through persistent use of the planning process.

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3. A CYCLE OF PLANNING

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a complete, but simplified, cycle of planning. In this chapter, you will be a part of a team that follows through each step of the planning process, applied to an illustrative case example. This will help you become familiar with the basic process of planning.

There are many methods that can be used in each step of the planning process. This chapter, however, is to illustrate the process of planning, clearly and succinctly, without the confusion of selecting which methods to use. Since it is the process, not the method, that is the focus of this chapter, only one method, or approach, will be used in each step of the process. Additional methods, and the details of each method, are presented in Section II of this Manual (Chapters 4-10).

Almost all of us do some planning. We plan vacations, social events, business trips, and the preparation of meals. We may plan our roles for meetings, and accumulate, even analyze, some information in advance. Thinking about the future and making some preparations for it are not new.

Much of our planning does not require more than a quick glimpse and analysis of the immediately-available information, with decisions quickly following. To spend hours or days planning a Sunday drive or the attendance at a minor meeting would be inefficient use of time. This would be like spending a dollar's value in time for a quarter's value in benefits.

On the other hand, we often, perhaps usually, allow this tendency to cursory planning to spill over into occasions of much greater significance. We fail to recognize that the effective use of the planning process in matters of importance can have a level of productivity that is so high that the benefits can be ten, a hundred, or a thousand times the cost.

Consequently, it is vital that we understand the planning process and that we use it effectively. This implies the use of wisdom in judging how much planning--how much detail, how many facts, and how much analysis--is appropriate for each occasion.

Now, let us examine what we need to do in order to plan. Here, we will show the need for each step in the planning process, so that the role served by each step will be clear. In this development, we are assuming that the planning is for the general purpose of serving the needs of the Aging.

Underlying any planning must be some type of mission. The mission, in this case, is the same as the general purpose noted above: serving the needs of the Aging. While the specific objectives of programs should be set only after considerable investigation and analysis, the focus and sphere of that exploration is determined

by the mission. Thus, the general mission, or purpose, precedes the planning process, and often is inherent in the organization--such as organizations to serve the Aging.

People--certain people--probably are the most influential single factor in the success or failure of activities. People can thwart or kill programs, or they can thrust programs forward by their support. There are countless ways that people can help build or destroy programs and projects. Resources are converted into services by people. It is a wide range of people, not just those employed by the program, that determine whether those resources are efficiently converted into services that effectively provide for the needs of the Aging. Consequently, the first step in the planning process is "Meeting the People."

While certain people can provide invaluable insight, observations, and opinions, it is important that these be supplemented by "hard data" (statistical data and other quantitative information from surveys, etc.). Often, we find disparity between the facts and what people think are the facts. Partially, this is because our opinions are based on our personal observations or on our interpretation of observations of a few other persons. Such observations often are too limited and lacking in objectivity to be dependable without careful examination of the data. This does not discount the value of individual observation and opinion; they are vitally important, whether factual or not. The necessity of examining hard data, including professional interpretations from analyzing such data, is the basis for step two: "Learning the Facts."

One of the purposes of meeting the people and learning the facts is to determine the real needs--unfilled needs--of the Aging. However, this is so important that it should be distinguished apart from the general examination of information in the previous steps. Here it is salient to determine the full spectrum of needs, or at least to be aware of those not so examined. This analytical examination of the needs of the Aging is the third step: "Finding the Needs."

Once we know the needs of the Aging, we must somehow select which of these needs should be served. Rarely are there sufficient resources to serve all needs of all the Aging, and certainly not in a short period of time. Consequently, priorities of selection and sequencing are necessary. Selecting and structuring the objectives to be pursued are contained in the fourth step: "Choosing Your Objectives."

It is easy to become overly optimistic in setting objectives. Yet, often, ambitious objectives motivate people and attract resources when modest aspirations would achieve much less. Choosing your objectives, therefore, can be optimistic, subject to being tempered after they are tentatively established. This tempering, or adjusting for realities, is accomplished by exploring various ways of reaching the objectives. It is here that potential resources are examined, barriers and adverse reactions are anticipated, and the option that is likely to be most successful is selected. This is

the fifth step: "Examining Paths."

The details essential in a well-prepared plan are by no means accomplished during the step for examining paths. The path, or option, selected provides the starting point for developing the details of structure and activities for the plan. Much of the information collected in the first three steps is useful in preparing these details of a plan. Here, participation of those who can determine its success or failure is especially vital. The process of participative analysis, negotiation, trade-off, and compromise helps to assure support for the plans by those involved. This is the sixth step: "Planning the Programs."

Planning should not cease with the development of a plan. Many plans fail or are never implemented because much planning does terminate with the formulation of a plan. We fail to realize that many defects in our plans become visible only during the process of implementation. Consequently, the activation of a plan should be monitored so that needed changes can be made as the implementation proceeds. Otherwise, accumulation of problems can cause a generally good plan to falter before it becomes effective. This is the seventh, and final, step: "Evaluating Results."

These seven steps are shown in EXHIBIT 3.1. The exhibit also shows that the principal movement during the planning process is straight down the sequence of steps, as indicated by the wider lines. However, it also shows that movement can proceed from any step to any other step, as may be needed.

Recycling among groups of steps within the process is necessary in order to improve earlier steps as later steps are pursued. Furthermore, it is not unusual for several steps to be occurring somewhat simultaneously, with continuous interaction among the steps. For example, the first three steps are so related that they could be achieved almost simultaneously.

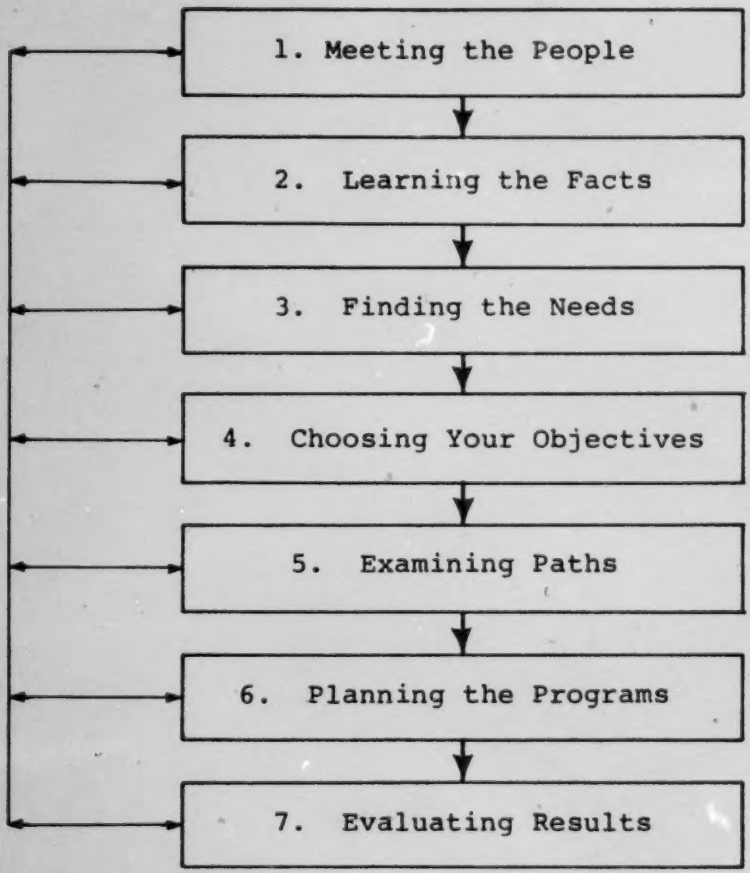
There are many possible examples of recycling. Certain facts, learned in step 2, might indicate a need to see other persons (step 1). Or, the examination of paths (step 5) is highly likely to uncover need for modifying the objectives (step 4). And evaluating results (step 7) is likely to show need for further activity in all preceding steps. This dynamic interchange among the steps is a vital part of the planning process.

Now that we have established the steps of the planning process and have examined their relationship to each other, we will present a hypothetical case and follow it through all seven steps of the process. As noted earlier, the prime purpose is to illustrate the planning process, so the illustration will be kept simple and only one method used for each step.

Our case involves planning services for the Aging in a county that includes one principal community, with considerable rural population distributed throughout the county. (If your area involves

EXHIBIT 3.1

STEPS IN THE PROCESS OF PLANNING FOR THE AGING



several counties or a state, you could analyze each county or region separately or collectively. Some programs, like meals service, can be planned for each community, whereas other programs, like information and referral, can serve a region of several counties. If your area is confined to a community, the approach is similar, although the needs and local funding organizations might be somewhat different.)

We will assume that the agency coordinating the services to the Aging for the region (several counties) is already active. They recognize that their planning has been inadequate, resulting in only moderate success in limited programs that were selected with little or no exploration of human or factual information. Consequently, the agency will use one county as a model for new planning efforts. In this way, it will develop its planning expertise by concentrating on the one county, then expand its planning to encompass other counties of the region. Our case, therefore, provides a cycle of planning for the Aging in that model county. Our model county is Ponce de León County, named for the Spanish explorer who discovered Florida in his quest for the fountain, according to Indian legend, with waters of marvelous curative power. Cypress (a tree whose wood has great value if the tree is sufficiently old) is the name of the principal community in Ponce de León County.

In our county of Ponce de León, we have only two programs specifically for the Aging. One is a small information and referral program operated by two persons in the community of Cypress. The other is a meals program serving 150 hot lunches each week day, on the north side of town. The meals program is handled by a local church, while the I & R program is contracted with an independent agency established for that purpose.

Currently, the Aging programs of Ponce de León County are stagnant, with little interest shown them by the population, even the Aging population. Whether this indicates that little need exists for Aging services or that the efforts-to-date have been only moderately successful is not known. This is the starting point for our planning in Ponce de León County.

The following seven sections provide a cycle of the planning process for Ponce de León County, as conducted by the Coordinator of Programs for the Aging, and his associates, for the region that includes the model county. This is a hypothetical case, even though the information is selected to provide a logical example for illustrating the process of planning.

a. Step 1: Meeting the People

Our first step in the planning process takes us face-to-face with others in the county who can have significant influence on the success of our programs for the Aging. This first step is essential, although often not so obvious until repercussions result from its oversight.

The principal purpose of this step is to get acquainted with

certain people, hopefully to establish a good beginning for successful and cooperative relationships with the people and their organizations. A secondary objective is to obtain insight into the human environment for our Aging programs.

To determine who should be visited, the Coordinator and his regional staff meet and list many possibilities. Then they ask themselves: "Which of these are really vital for the Coordinator to visit as the first step of planning in Ponce de Leon County?" They cull down the list to those shown in EXHIBIT 3.2.

It is decided to delay selection of the aldermen, supervisors, ministers, business and professional leaders, and persons in the three Aging categories to be visited. The specific persons to be visited will be selected later based on discussions with people in the other categories.

The only persons who have been visited previously are the ministers of three (minority-group) churches, some of the Aging who participate in the meals program, and two spokesmen for a minority population.

Several revelations begin to appear during the visits:

(1) The community leaders have ignored us because we have ignored them. They were not very hospitable and looked on us as outsiders meddling in their affairs. But they left the door open and suggested further discussion at a later date.

(2) The non-minority people, in general, feel that the Aging programs are for the aged minority people only. They see the current programs serving a few in that category, and that's all. Thus, why should the community support a program that focuses on such a small, unrepresentative segment of the community and county.

(3) The Board of Supervisors feels that a need exists for a transportation program to serve the elderly in the county, but has not considered developing it because the Aging programs seem to be concentrating on minority population only.

(4) We have not communicated with the real leaders of the minority population. The two we have considered as their leaders also consider themselves as leaders, as do some of the majority population. But the minority population only tolerate them. Their real leaders are several persons who provide informal leadership. One of them is highly respected and influential in the minority circles.

(5) The minority leaders believe that our meals program is reaching those least needing it and the I & R program is serving trivial problems rather than the more vital ones.

(6) There are some indications that critical needs may exist with some of the non-poverty Aging as well as with many of those below the poverty level. Some of the persons visited accused us of ignoring vital needs of too many of the Aging, suggesting that, "when

EXHIBIT 3.2

PERSONS VISITED IN PONCE DE LEÓN COUNTY

(1) Community Leaders

- (a) Mayor
- (b) Board of Aldermen
- (c) Board of Supervisors
- (d) Director, Chamber of Commerce
- (e) Business and professional leaders

(2) Those Serving the Aging

- (a) AARP
- (b) Churches
- (c) County Health Department
- (d) City/County Library
- (e) County Welfare Department

(3) Leaders of the Aging

(4) Sampling of the Aging

(5) Aging with special Insight

you show us that you are concerned about the welfare of all of our Aging, then we might hear your pleas for support from us."

These are the major revelations. The visits produced information indicating that we have made some major errors and omissions. We are shocked at finding such a negative attitude toward our programs by so many persons, but, fortunately, the doors appear to be open for healing past wounds and moving into the future.

b. Step 2: Learning the Facts

Now we want to reinforce these visits with hard data (statistical information). This is our second step. For this purpose, we visit the City/County Library to see what information is available. At the Library, we discuss our needs with a readers' assistant, and she suggests that we examine the 1970 Census of Population.

We examine three volumes of the 1970 Census of Population, published by the Bureau of the Census, U. S. Department of Commerce, that are for our State, as follows:

(1) Characteristics of the Population

(2) General Population Characteristics

(3) General Social and Economic Characteristics

We also examine the 1960 Census of Population volumes for our State, in order to obtain indications of trends for certain data.

The data we compiled from the 1970 Census of Population are shown in EXHIBIT 3.3. Using those figures, we calculated comparative, relative data, in the form of percentages, as shown in EXHIBITS 3.4 and 3.5. In selecting the data for our initial use, as shown in EXHIBIT 3.3, we wanted to look at the number of persons that we might expect to serve. In addition, we looked for data that would clarify further any major inadequacies of the current programs for the Aging. Many of the interviews with other persons indicated that our programs have focused on a small, concentrated portion of the Aging, and not necessarily those with the most critical needs.

In examining the data, we first search for any validity to the accusation that our programs appear to be serving only Aging persons of the minority group. The meals program serves 125 minority-group persons and 25 non-minority persons (all are 65 years old or over). On the average, the information and referral program serves 20 persons each week; ten of these are 65 years old or over, and 10 are courtesy assistance to other persons. Eight of the ten Aging served each week are minority-group persons.

To examine this question, the following statistics are taken from EXHIBITS 3.3 and 3.4. All of the following data are for population 65 years old or over, or families with heads 65 years old or over, in Ponce de Leon County.

EXHIBIT 3.3

SALIENT STATISTICS OBTAINED ON PONCE DE LEÓN COUNTY

	Ponce de León County		Community of Cypress	
	Total Population	Population 65 and over	Total Population	Population 65 and over
Total population	100,000	20,000	50,000	5,000
Population of minority persons	20,000	2,000	15,000	1,000
Population of others	80,000	18,000	35,000	4,000
Number of persons with fewer than 8 years of education	40,000	15,000	25,000	3,000
Persons of minority groups	15,000	1,800	8,000	850
Other persons	25,000	13,200	17,000	2,150
Number of families	25,000	7,500	15,000	1,500
Families of minority groups	3,600	700	2,000	200
Families of others	21,400	6,800	13,000	1,300
Number of families below poverty level	4,000	1,500	1,500	500
Families of minority groups	1,200	300	500	100
Families of others	2,800	1,200	1,000	400

EXHIBIT 3.4

ANALYSIS OF STATISTICS ON PONCE DE LEÓN COUNTY

	Ponce de León County		Community of Cypress	
	Total Population	Population 65 and over	Total Population	Population 65 and over
Per cent minority population				
Total population	20.0	10.0	30.0	20.0
Persons with fewer than 8 years education	37.5	12.0	32.0	28.3
Per cent with fewer than 8 years education	40.0	75.0	50.0	60.0
Population of minority groups	75.0	90.0	53.3	85.0
Other persons	31.2	73.3	48.6	53.8
Per cent minority-group families				
All families	14.4	9.3	13.3	13.3
Families below poverty level	30.0	20.0	33.3	20.0
Per cent of families below poverty level	16.0	20.0	10.0	33.3
Families of minority groups	33.3	42.9	25.0	50.0
Families of others	13.1	17.6	7.7	30.8

EXHIBIT 3.5

ANALYSIS OF STATISTICS ON PONCE DE LEÓN COUNTY

	Per Cent of County Population Living in Cypress		Per Cent of Population 65 years old and over	
	Total Population	Population 65 and over	Ponce de León County	Cypress Community
Total population	50.0	25.0	20.0	10.0
Population of minority persons	75.0	50.0	10.0	6.7
Population of others	43.8	22.2	22.5	11.4
Number of persons with fewer than 8 years of education	62.5	20.0	37.5	12.0
Persons of minority groups	53.3	47.2	12.0	10.6
Other persons	68.0	16.3	37.7	16.3
Number of families	60.0	20.0	30.0	10.0
Families of minority groups	55.6	28.6	19.4	10.0
Families of others	60.7	19.1	31.8	10.0
Number of families below poverty level	37.5	33.3	37.5	33.0
Families of minority groups	41.7	33.3	25.0	33.3
Families of others	35.7	33.3	42.9	40.0

Population Parameter	Total Population	Minority Population	Non-Minority Population
Total population (65 and over)	20,000	2,000	18,000
Persons with fewer than 8 years education	15,000	1,800	13,200
Low education per cent of total population	75.1%	90.0%	73.3%
Number of families (heads 65 or over)	7,500	700	6,800
Families below poverty level	1,500	300	1,200
Below poverty level per cent of total families	20.0%	42.9%	17.6%

From the above analysis, we can see that:

(1) The number of persons being served by the two existing programs for the Aging is small relative to the 20,000 persons 65 years old or over (considered here as the Aging).

(2) The services for the Aging have been assisting some persons from the 2,000 Aging minority population, but have served very few of the 18,000 non-minority Aging population.

(3) Although 90% of the Aging minority persons have fewer than 8 years of education, 73% of the non-minority persons have the same, limited formal education. Only 1,800 of the 15,000 Aging in this limited-education category are minority persons.

(4) While 43% of the minority group families whose head is 65 or over are below the poverty level of income, 18% of the non-minority families (having heads 63 or over) are below the poverty level. Of 1,500 such families, only 300 are minority-group families.

Consequently, the analysis shows that the majority of the Aging, and their needs, in Ponce de Leon County is comprised of non-minority persons. Whether we look at the total Aging, those with limited formal education, or those whose families are below the poverty level, we find the great majority of them are non-minority, while our programs are serving mostly minority persons.

We now examine the statistics for the geographical distribution of the Aging population between the city and the remainder of the county. This is to determine the validity of the criticisms that we are overlooking most of the Aging, and to see if the Board of Supervisors may have had sound reason for considering developing a transportation system to serve the Aging.

The following are selected data from EXHIBITS 3.3 and 3.5. (The data in the 3rd column are calculated from the first two columns.) They show population of the Aging (65 years old and over) and number of families whose heads are 65 years old and over.

Population Parameter	All Residents in Ponce de Leon County	Residents of Cypress	County Residents Outside of Cypress
Total population (65 and over)	20,000	5,000	15,000
Distribution (EXHIBIT 3.5)	100.0%	25.0%	75.0%
Persons with fewer than 8 years education	15,000	3,000	12,000
Distribution (EXHIBIT 3.5)	100.0%	20.0%	80.0%
Families below poverty level of income	1,500	500	1,000
Distribution (EXHIBIT 3.5)	100.0%	33.3%	66.7%

The above data indicate that between 67% and 80% of the Aging persons needing services reside in the county outside of the city of Cypress. This shows that there are large numbers of non-city Aging who likely have needs that should be served, and that a transportation service (that includes at least the non-city area) likely would be a major asset to the Aging. (A modest bus service currently exists within the city, providing limited service to anyone for 25¢ per ride.)

An examination of the 1960 Census of Population showed the population and the population distribution by age and by race to be almost unchanged between 1960 and 1970. This implies reasonable population stability, which could be verified further by examining the Census of Population for 1940 and 1950, then plotting the data to portray the trends.

Since the statistics do not show how many of the Aging are shut-ins, a survey of the ministers of the churches provides the following estimates:

	Those living in Cypress	Those living outside Cypress
Per cent of all Aging who are shut-ins	25%	10%
Per cent of minority Aging who are shut-ins	10%	20%
Per cent of non-minority Aging who are shut-ins	29%	9%

The above data appear to support the accusations that the Aging programs were missing the most critical cases. The shut-ins cannot

be served by the central meals program, and they are less able to go into the information and referral office to discuss their needs face-to-face.

These data and analyses reinforce the comments by those visited (Step 1), showing that a broader coverage of persons and a more-complete array of services are needed. Furthermore, the visits indicated that the county and community likely would welcome a more-comprehensive program of services that effectively provides for at least the most-critical needs of the Aging. These needs are analyzed in Step 3.

c. Step 3: Finding the Needs

Although we are beginning to recognize some of the needs of the Aging in Ponce de León County through our efforts in steps 1 and 2, we are aware of only fragments of these needs. Rather than to proceed ahead alone in determining the pattern of needs, we meet as a staff and decide to form an Advisory Council on Aging for Ponce de León County. This Council, we believe, can help us determine the needs, and also can help us to develop good relations and communications with other people and organizations in the County.

The Advisory Council is formed from several persons from each of the following categories: (1) the Aging, including leaders of the Aging; (2) organizations serving or that might serve the Aging; (3) the public, especially including respected community leaders; and (4) potential funding sources.

The Advisory Council now meets to get acquainted and to advise on how to determine the needs of the Aging in Ponce de León County, both inside and outside of the city. They recommend that a survey instrument (questionnaire) be prepared, and that it be administered to two groups: (1) to the Advisory Council to determine what the Council thinks are the needs; and (2) to a random sampling of the Aging throughout the county (including the city of Cypress) to determine what the Aging conceive to be their needs and the priority of these needs.

This is done, and although there are some differences between the results of the two surveys, those differences are investigated and reconciled. There are some differences in relative magnitude of each need by the Aging in Cypress compared to those outside of Cypress, but the Council concludes that the differences are not enough to justify separate treatment.

EXHIBIT 3.6 shows the needs and the relative priorities (degree of importance or criticality), as concluded from the surveys. This exhibit uses the grid method of portraying the needs by priority. The grid enables the needs to be examined as a whole, so that planning can take into account the full spectrum of needs rather than isolated needs that are highly visible and attract special support.

Now we need to determine which organizations are providing services that are filling or could fill any of these needs. A review

EXHIBIT 3.6

GRID LISTING OF NEEDS OF THE AGING IN PONCE DE LEON COUNTY

Relative Importance of Need	Needs of the Aging			
	Nutrition	Health	Recreation	Protection
1. Highest Importance	Balanced meals	Basic treatment Emergency contact	Social activity Reading	Basic security Emergency contact
2. Middle Importance	Nutrition education Tasty food Social contact	Health education Preventive care	Creative activity Collecting activity Nature activity	Security training Facilities inspection
3. Lowest Importance	Attractive food Pleasant environment Changing envirment	Social contact Happy environment	Travel	Social contact Preferred environment

Note: All information is hypothetical, for illustration as a case example.

EXHIBIT 3.7

GRID OF SERVICES AVAILABLE TO THE AGING IN PONCE DE LEÓN COUNTY

Service Organization	Needs of the Aging			
	Nutrition	Health	Recreation	Protection
AARP Chapter	none	Medical insurance Drugs at low cost	Monthly meetings	none
Churches	Christmas baskets Meals for 150	none	Church libraries	none
Health Department	none	Check up Treatment Shots Counsel	none	none
City-County Library	Books Magazines	Books Magazines	Books Magazines	Books Magazines
Police Dept. Sheriff's Dept.	none	none	none	Patrol in Cypress Answer emergencies

Note: (1) All information is hypothetical, for illustration as a case example.
(2) The current Cypress Bus System and the Information and Referral Program, both being facilitating services, are not shown in the grid.

of available information, with the counsel of the Advisory Council, provides us the information that we structure into EXHIBIT 3.7. This exhibit shows the current structure of services that assist the Aging in any of the four areas of need. The exhibit does not show the two important facilitating services: (1) information and referral currently being provided by a contract program; and (2) transportation services, either the needs or the current, modest service within Cypress. Facilitating needs of information and referrals and of transportation are recognized as being in addition to and complementary to those needs and services shown in EXHIBIT 3.6 and 3.7.

The analysis of needs is now as complete as feasible before proceeding to the other steps. We now must establish our objectives in order to be in a position to set priorities and determine a sequence of activities to reach these objectives.

d. Step 4: Choosing Your Objectives

Now we must decide what we will attempt as the objectives of our total programming for the Aging. To begin this, we examine EXHIBITS 3.6 and 3.7 and find that none of the needs of the Aging is being adequately filled at this time. Some of the needs are provided for some of the Aging, while some needs are almost completely unfulfilled.

Since the Advisory Council, its members, and its members' organizations, have a vital role in the success of any programs, they should participate in considering what the objectives should be. To achieve this, a meeting notice is sent to each, along with a statement of the problem to be considered and the summary information available for considering this problem.

The Advisory Council meets, and they propose one policy, one action, and three objectives, as follows and as summarized in EXHIBIT 3.8.

(1) Proposed policy: New programs should be provided through existing community organizations, on a cooperating basis, if those organizations are able to do so as effectively and efficiently as could a new organization developed for that purpose.

(2) Proposed action: A Program Planner-Facilitator should be employed by the Regional Coordinator of Aging Programs, so that the model programs in Ponce de León County can have needed staff assistance for: (a) providing the analyses needed in the continuing planning process, and (b) facilitating the participating organizations to implement these programs effectively.

(3) Proposed objective no. 1: The critical needs (those shown as "1. Highest Importance" in EXHIBIT 3.6) should be the focus for the next two years. Planning on other needs should be delayed for one year, until the programming for critical needs is well under way.

(4) Proposed objective no. 2: A need that is less-than-critical should be serviced in the current stage only if: (a) it can be served along with a related critical need, and (b) there would be little or no

EXHIBIT 3.8

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE ADVISORY COUNCIL

(1) Policy: New programs should be provided through existing community organizations, on a cooperating basis, so long as this is as effective and efficient as any alternative.

(2) Action: A program planner-facilitator should be employed by the Regional Office to assist program planning and implementation by all cooperating organizations.

(3) Objective 1: The critical needs should be the focus of the next two years.

(4) Objective 2: Any less-than-critical need may be incorporated with a related critical need if no sacrifice of critical services is required.

(5) Objective 3: The ordering of priorities should be: transportation, health, information and referral, nutrition, protection, and recreation.

additional cost involved, and (c) it would not delay any of the critical services.

(5) Proposed objective no. 3: The general, though overlapping, development of services for the needs should occur in the following priority: (a) transportation, (b) health, (c) information and referral, (d) nutrition, (e) protection, and (f) recreation. This ordering of priorities is based on the staff/Advisory Council estimates of implementation cost and time requirements, the relative criticality of each, and the reinforcement of early services for those developed later in the sequence.

The staff and the Advisory Council are pleased with these five recommendations, and all now are approved as being the guidelines for further planning. The staff feels that the proposed policy statement is fair and very appropriate, and they believe that it provides a mutual commitment that can motivate both sides to cooperation and dedication. Also, the staff recognizes that the proposed action (for employment of a program planner-facilitator) can assist all of the units to work together and to work more effectively. Of course, this person must be chosen carefully, as he must have characteristics that promote cooperation with all parties.

e. Step 5: Examining Paths

The staff begins to discuss various ways of determining the options available for providing services to fill the critical needs of the Aging in Ponce de Leon County. Recognizing that the Advisory Council includes representatives of the local funding sources and the principal organizations providing services to the Aging, the staff elects to invite the Advisory Council to participate in examining available paths (options) for reaching the objectives.

To accomplish this, the members of the Advisory Council agree to allocate two days of their time for a special "planning retreat." The first day includes a series of six "brainstorming" sessions to provide the creative development of ideas (regarding services and providers) for each of the six areas of need (4 areas of direct need and two facilitator needs). Each session has 15 minutes of general discussion of that specific need, 15 minutes of brainstorming (during which all types of ways for providing for the need are voiced and recorded), and 30 minutes of relaxation and refreshment.

In each "brainstorming" session, only positive ideas are allowed; no criticism is permitted. All ideas for serving the need are written on a large chalkboard by the "recorder," while the session leader stimulates all types of ideas from those participating. The recorded ideas are kept for use at the analysis sessions, to be held on the next day.

The second day is spent analyzing the various ideas (options) for achieving each of the 6 needs. This includes exploring ways of fitting the best options into a structure of services provided by the group of cooperating organizations. As with the brainstorming sessions, the concern is: what services can (should) be performed, and

by what organizations. Here, however, funding needs and funding sources also are carefully explored.

EXHIBIT 3.9 shows a summary of the results of the two-day planning retreat (two facilitator services are omitted due to lack of space). Further details of the options selected are as follows.

(1) Transportation. This should be developed in the following three segments:

(a) General transportation. The Cypress Bus System should be expanded to encompass the complete county. This would be handled on a cooperative, shared subsidy of the city and county, but with the city administering the system under the guidance of a joint Transportation Coordinating Committee. A Transportation Advisory Committee would provide counsel from the Aging and cooperating organizations. All Aging and persons assisting the Aging would ride at no cost between 9 a.m. and 3 p.m., using an identification card system. The bus routes would be redesigned to accommodate the needs of the Aging.

(b) The churches should cooperate together to provide a supplementary transportation system for shut-ins. This would accommodate regular needs that could not be handled by the City-County Bus System. A Coordinating Committee would monitor and guide the program, carried out by a Transportation Pool comprised of all volunteer drivers. All drivers would be furnished with a simple expense form and could receive mileage expense from a subsidy pool provided by the churches. Or, they could retain their completed forms as records for income tax benefit as a charitable contribution. For the first two years, this service would be limited to medical attention.

(c) Ponce de León County should purchase a medical emergency vehicle, and should maintain it, properly staffed with facilities and personnel. It would serve all of the County, including Cypress, for persons of all ages.

(2) Health. In addition to the transportation facilitator services, the following health services should be provided:

(a) The County Health Department should provide regular and routine maintenance care by appointment or without appointment during certain hours of week days.

(b) The County Health Department should provide limited maintenance care in the home for shut-ins who are confined to their homes.

(c) A special relationship between the County Health Department and the City-County Hospital should provide 24-hour emergency service for the Aging.

(d) The City-County Library should provide classes on health care for the Aging, with the assistance of the County Health Department and other health-related organizations.

(3) Information, referral, and outreach. The Information and Referral

EXHIBIT 3.9

PROPOSED SERVICES TO THE AGING OF PONCE DE LEÓN COUNTY

Service Organization	Needs of the Aging in Ponce de Leon County			
	Health	Nutrition	Protection	Recreation
AARP Chapter			Telephone re-assurance	Library committee Social programs
Churches	Shut-in transportation	Central Meals Shut-in Meals		
Health Department	Scheduled Care Home visits 24-hour service			
City-County Library	Library	Nutrition classes	Security classes	Special collections Recreation classes Shut-in service
Police Dept. Sheriff's Dept.	Emergency transportation		Random patrol Instant response	

3-21

program should be expanded and strengthened to provide a more complete assistance (including outreach). The AARP Chapter has agreed to provide outreach volunteers on a continuing, rotating basis to assist the paid staff. The outreach volunteers will be reimbursed for their out-of-pocket costs.

(4) Nutrition. The current meals program should be expanded to provide a more complete meals and nutrition program, as follows:

(a) The central meals service should be expanded, as funds are available, to be provided through six churches (instead of the current one).

(b) Meals to shut-ins should be provided from the 6 central programs, delivered by volunteers from the churches. These volunteers will be trained to provide some expanded assistance for the Aging. The same expense reimbursement system as with the medical transportation system should apply.

(c) Nutrition classes should be provided by the City-County Library, with the Cooperative Extension Service planning and coordinating all classes.

(5) Protection. The following expanded program of protection should be developed:

(a) The AARP Chapter should organize and conduct a continuing telephone reassurance plan.

(b) The City-County Library should provide Security Classes, with the assistance of others. The AARP Chapter will coordinate the classes in cooperation with the Library.

(c) A random patrol system should be developed for the city and the county, providing random surveillance to all areas.

(d) An instant-response system of law enforcement officers should be developed by a joint city-county system. The Police Department and the Sheriff's Department should cooperate, each serving as deputies of the other so that any of them can respond to calls from anywhere in the city or county. A common communications/coordinating system should accommodate both.

(6) Recreation. Limited recreation activity, sufficient to assure reasonable social/personal health should be developed as follows:

(a) The AARP should provide a Library Committee to advise and assist the City-County Library in its efforts to assist the Aging.

(b) The AARP should develop several interest groups with each having a type of social and/or hobby activity. The Library should provide reading materials, films, and other aids.

(c) The City-County Library should provide special collections of reading materials for those subject areas most in demand by Aging readers.

(d) The Library should provide educational/recreational classes on hobbies, games, travel, and other favorite topics, with the assistance of others.

(e) A special, door-to-door delivery service of books and magazines should be developed by the Library. Also, they should train and certify volunteers on visual aids equipment, and should provide equipment and films for the volunteers to use with shut-ins.

The above structure of proposed services is the result of the 2-day Planning Retreat of the staff and the Advisory Council. For one month, the staff will further study all of these recommendations and will visit with each organization involved to discuss further their potential participation. Although their recommended participation was with their expressed interest and consent, it now needs to be reassured and further strengthened. Then a meeting of the Advisory Council will be held to make any final modifications.

That now has been done, and no major changes were made in the preliminary structure. Now to proceed into the next step to plan the program of activities in more detail.

f. Step 6: Planning the Programs

The staff now must plan: (1) the details of each service program to be developed, (2) the steps for implementing and monitoring each, and (3) the time table for implementing each program. In addition, proposals for funds for equipment and operation of the expanded programs in transportation, health, and nutrition must be prepared.

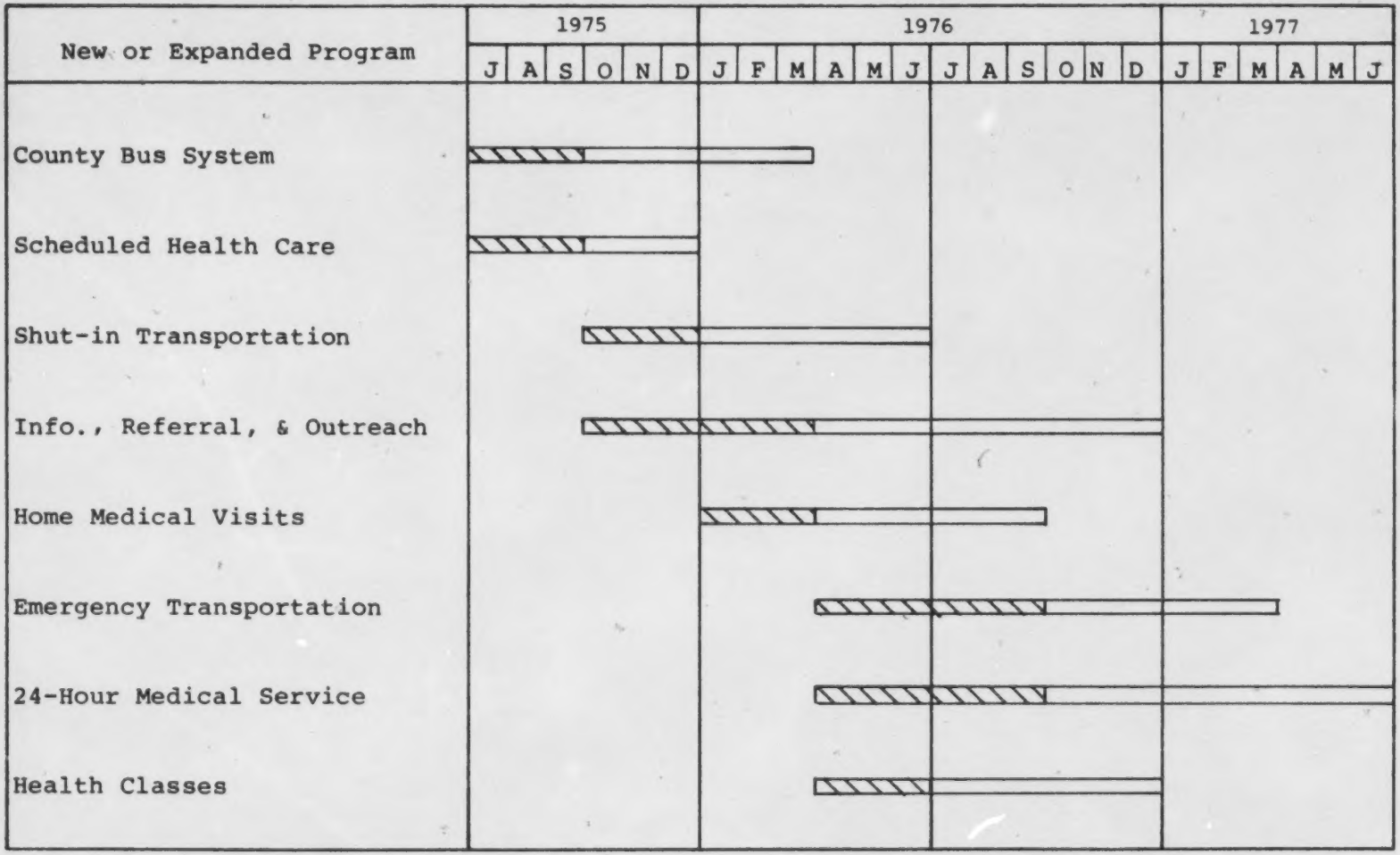
The new program planner-facilitator now has been employed. He arrived in time to become somewhat acquainted with people and developments during the few days prior to the Planning Retreat. He also attended the retreat, primarily to become acquainted with the members and to listen, observe, and ask questions.

The planner-facilitator and other staff now examine each of the 20 projects (18 are listed in EXHIBIT 3.9; plus the county bus system and the information and referral program, both being expansions of existing activities). The selected methods for achieving each are noted, along with the likely barriers or limitations to be encountered. This analysis showed that funding probabilities and established program priorities would suggest that the following eight programs be initiated during the first year, and that current planning of details be focused on them:

Program	Principal Provider
(1) County Bus System	City and County Governments
(2) Shut-in Transportation	Churches
(3) Scheduled Health Care	County Health Department
(4) Home Medical Visits	County Health Department

EXHIBIT 3.10

GANTT SCHEDULE OF IMPLEMENTING EIGHT PROGRAMS FOR THE AGING


New or Expanded Program
1975
1976
1977
J A S O N D J F M A M J J A S O N D J F M A M J
County Bus System
Scheduled Health Care
Shut-in Transportation
Info., Referral, & Outreach
Home Medical Visits
Emergency Transportation
24-Hour Medical Service
Health Classes

Notes: (1) The data are hypothetical for illustrating the case cycle of planning.
(2) All programs continue operation on a regular basis following the monitoring period.

Code: Period of Implementation Period of Monitoring

3-24

(5) 24-Hour Medical Service	Health Department/Hospital
(6) Health Classes	City-County Library
(7) Emergency Transportation	Police/Sheriff's Departments
(8) Information, Referral, and Outreach	Private Contract/AARP

These eight programs now are explored further, developing the methods for achieving the services, likely and preferred funding sources, and the steps for implementing and monitoring each program. The implementation steps for each project are structured in a time sequence to determine how long (number of months) would be required for the preliminary arrangements and implementation of the project. An estimate then is made of the length of period needed to carefully monitor each program, following its implementation, to assure reasonable stability of the program. Corrective action, of course, is implied to be part of the monitoring process.

We now prepare a Gantt chart, with each of the eight programs scheduled to begin at appropriate times, in relation to each other, with their time requirements for implementation and monitoring shown in the bars. We already found it necessary to modify the sequence of starting the eight projects (compared to the sequence listed above), in order to provide necessary facilitating services and other reinforcements needed prior to beginning each project. Now we also find some further rearrangement of the preliminary Gantt chart of schedules to prevent impractical demands on certain personnel.

EXHIBIT 3.10 is the modified Gantt Chart, showing the eight projects scheduled to begin during the first year of the new program plan. Note in EXHIBIT 3.10 that only two projects at a time are planned for implementation during the first 9 months of the first program year. An additional staff member is expected to be employed January 1, 1976, and he will be able to assist the program implementation and monitoring activity beginning April 1.

Now that the Gantt schedule is completed, planning is focused on completing the plans for the two programs to begin July 1: (1) the County Bus System expanded, and (2) Scheduled Health Care. This is accomplished on schedule, and arrangements for implementing both begin on time: July 1.

The program implementation and monitoring proceed according to plan, or modified as may be essential. Each new program continues its operation through the implementation and monitoring period and on indefinitely.

g. Step 7: Evaluating Results

Results of a program are evaluated by comparing them with some type of standards. These standards relate to the objectives previously established for the program, but may be more specific than the objectives. The standards, or specific goals, may be in the form

of the number of persons to be served (such as meals or man-trips), or they may be in the form of percentage of need that is expected to be served.

To be fair, evaluation must recognize the existence of the learning curve. Goals should be progressive, providing movement toward the ultimate objectives, but not expecting their instant achievement. Some typical learning curves are shown in EXHIBIT 3.11. Curve 1 shows major progress in the early period, with a continuously declining rate of additional progress over the full curve. The County Bus System might follow this type of curve. Curve 2 is symbolic of a situation that gains publicity and acceptance slowly, but once it achieves a breakthrough, Curve 2 is similar to Curve 1. The Information, Referral, and Outreach Program might follow this type of curve. Curve 3 has an initial growth period similar to either Curve 1 or Curve 2, with a stability period before another plunge upward. This could be a Meals Program that is developed in stages or the Emergency Transportation Program that takes a trial period before the majority of the people are willing to subject themselves to its service. Learning curves symbolize real life in moving toward objectives.

The staff discusses the learning curve influence on goal achievement, and prepares a three-step procedure of evaluation:

(1) At the end of the implementation period of a program, the staff will prepare a status report, and will submit it to the Advisory Council. The Council members will have between three and four weeks to make their own inquiries after receiving the report. Then the Advisory Council will meet to critique the project and make recommendations for follow-up.

(2) At the end of the monitoring period, each project will be evaluated by an independent, 3-man team, selected as follows: One evaluator selected by the regional staff, one by the Advisory Council, and one by the organization handling the program. These evaluations will include a comparison of the program achievements with: (1) the total need it is attempting to serve, and (2) the percentage of that need originally anticipated (by the staff and the organization sponsoring the program, estimated before the program was implemented) to be reached by the end of the monitoring period.

(3) Annually, beginning one year after starting implementation of the plan, a three-man team will evaluate the whole program of Aging services in Ponce de Leon County. The team will be comprised of: one person from the Regional Aging Staff, one from the Advisory Council, and one independent outsider selected jointly by the staff and Advisory Council. Their evaluation will include a comparison of program achievements with the total need it is attempting to serve.

EXHIBIT 3.12 shows a summary of the numerical evaluations made

EXHIBIT 3.11

EXAMPLES OF TYPICAL LEARNING CURVES

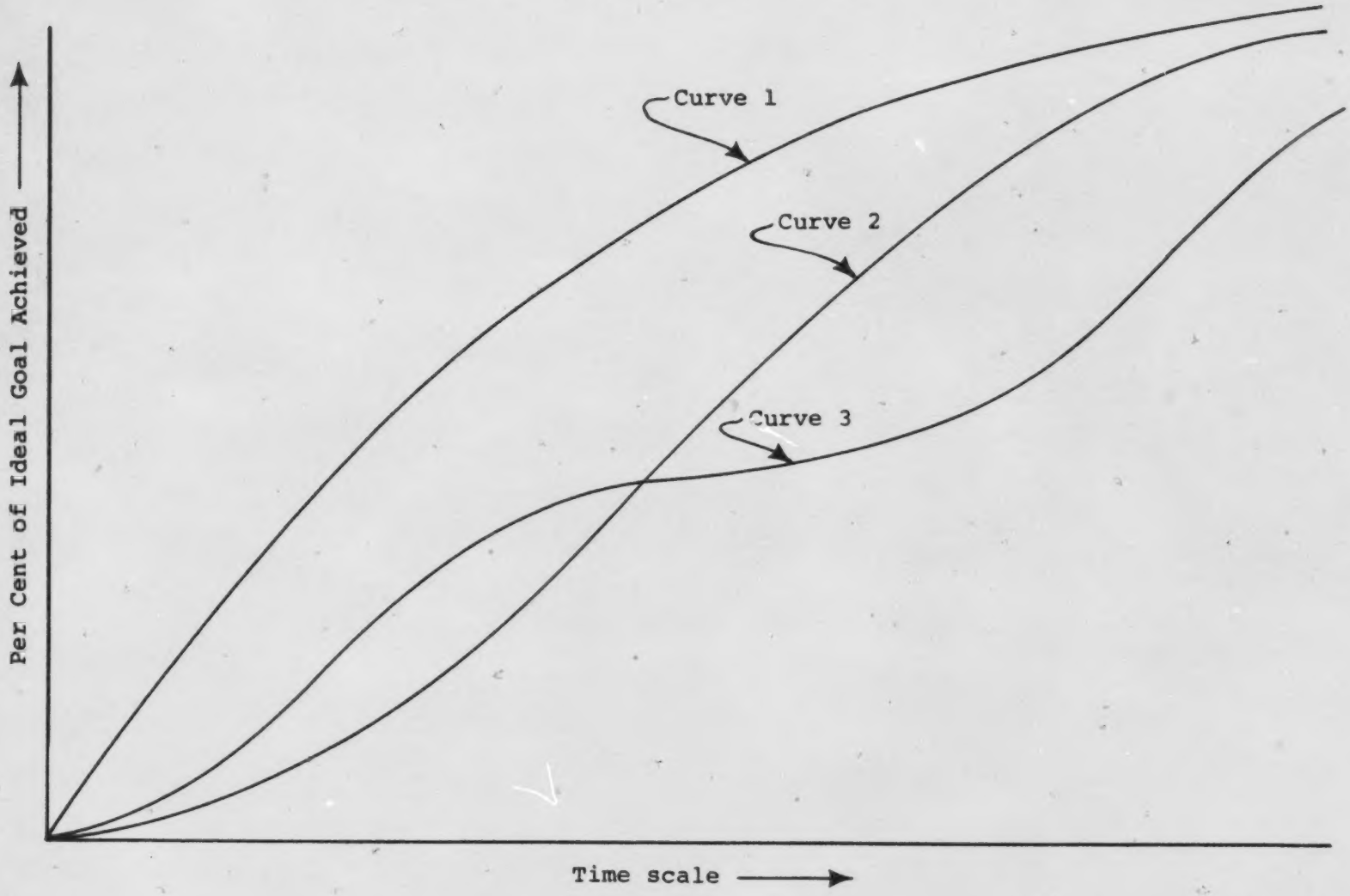
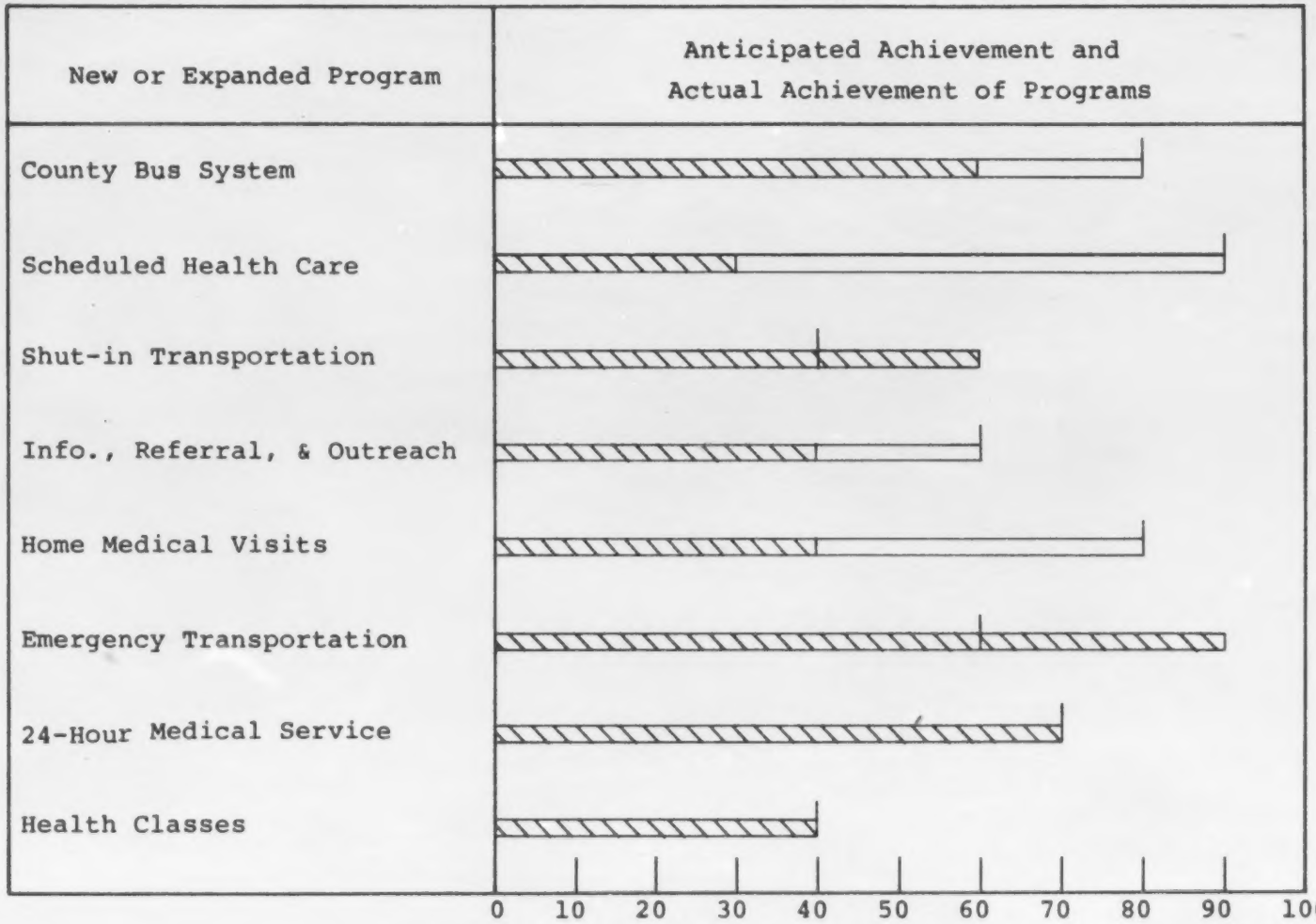


EXHIBIT 3.12

EVALUATION OF PROGRAMS FOR THE AGING IN PONCE DE LEÓN COUNTY
(Each evaluation is made at the end of the monitoring period for that program)


New or Expanded Program
Anticipated Achievement and Actual Achievement of Programs
County Bus System
Scheduled Health Care
Shut-in Transportation
Info., Referral, & Outreach
Home Medical Visits
Emergency Transportation
24-Hour Medical Service
Health Classes
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
Percentage of the total need filled by the project when evaluated

Code: Anticipated achievement is shown by a vertical line projecting above the program bar.

Actual Achievement Unfilled Plan, Behind Schedule

3-28

at the end of the monitoring period for each of the projects initiated during the first year of the plan for the model county. Each evaluation was made by an independent, 3-man team as noted in (2) above. Note in EXHIBIT 3.12 that the 24-Hour Medical Service and the Health Classes are on schedule; the Shut-in Transportation and the Emergency Transportation are well ahead of schedule; the County Bus System and the Information, Referral, and Outreach Program are slightly behind schedule; and the Scheduled Health Care and the Home Medical Visits are well behind schedule.

Two of the medical programs are behind schedule because the County Health Department has been unable to employ the two additional doctors, even though the funds are available to do so. The Shut-in Transportation and Emergency Transportation programs are well ahead of schedule because the public response was better and quicker than had been anticipated. The County Bus System needs some rearrangement of its routes in order to improve its service. And the Information, Referral, and Outreach program needs to provide an educational program for the volunteer personnel who are assisting in the counsel and client assistance. The evaluations of each program include specific findings of problems encountered by the program, possible future constraints that may confront the program in the foreseeable future, and recommendations for continued progress.

The annual evaluations provide continuing reassessment of progress and potential for each program. These 3-man evaluation teams provide insight into the needs, problems, and possibilities for the programs. In this way, corrective action, cumulative progress, and modification to plans are maintained. This, we feel, is essential to maintain progress toward complete fulfillment of objectives and to prevent program decadence.

The above case uses Ponce de León County as an example for illustrating the process of planning for the Aging. Many of the details are omitted in order to focus on the process rather than the methods or the operational details. Nevertheless, an ambitious program is illustrated in this case so that some of the complexities involved in planning can be illustrated.

Because planning can be both nebulous and complex, it is important that an administrator or planner not be repelled from planning by being confronted with these realities suddenly. Planning can begin through step-by-step familiarity even with the basic process of planning. Take one of the planning steps at a time, use it for a brief period to gain an understanding and appreciation for it. Then progress on to the next step, and on through the process.

After you understand the planning process, as demonstrated in this chapter, then you will be interested in using additional methods in each of the steps. Section II (Chapters 4-10) provides a chapter for each step in the planning process, and several practical methods are presented for use in each step. This makes it possible to become more capable in the planning process and its use.

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Note: The numbers preceding each bibliography listing are the numbers of the same listings in the complete BIBLIOGRAPHY at the end of this Manual.

PART II

PRACTICAL METHODS FOR PLANNING

The purpose of PART II is to provide several methods or techniques that can be used to carry out each of the seven steps of the planning process, and to illustrate or describe their application to the delivery of services for the Aging.

The seven chapters of PART II relate to the seven steps in the planning process, and each chapter title is the same as that step in the process of planning. Each chapter contains five sections, each directly relevant to that step of planning for which the chapter is named. Each section describes or illustrates at least one applicable method or technique, and includes at least one exhibit useful in understanding or using the material in that section.

The methods chosen or developed for PART II do not exhaust the many available methods or potential methods. They were selected because they seemed to be especially applicable in developing, operating, or coordinating programs for the Aging.

4. MEETING THE PEOPLE

The first and foremost factor in planning is: PEOPLE. Of course, planning for the Aging is planning for people. Successful planning for the Aging, however, also must take account of the human environment within which the planning must be done and plans must be carried out.

People can make or break a program. They can make the "impossible" both possible and successful. But, they also can generate the failure of the logical and "assured." Any results of any undertaking depend on people, and many of these people are external to your agency and other organizations directly serving the Aging.

Through their influence, people can prevent the right things from happening and they also can make adverse things occur. Needed influence or participation can be withheld, and negative influence can generate unwanted results. Thus, one needs to be aware of the full range of human influence that can either aid or deter his program or organization.

Success of an activity depends not only on the people directly involved but also on those whose indirect influence is sufficient to affect the reaching of that success. In programs for the Aging, these persons may be politicians, ministers, community leaders or businessmen, as well as influencial Aging, informal leaders of minority groups, or potential employees of the program.

New programs, new activities, and new organizations imply change, and change is often resisted. Some of this resistance is because people think the change <u>will</u> produce results they don't want or because they think it <u>may</u> yield results they prefer not to have. Thus, the mere possibility or the thinking that a possibility exists of less-desirable results being generated, is adequate stimulus for people to resist the change. Consequently, what people think is very important, and it can be important whether what they think is correct or not.

Since the influence of people is so important, it is strategic for the first order of business to encompass: (1) determining where the relevant influence exists, (2) understanding them and their thinking, and (3) finding ways to align them with the activity. This chapter explores some ways of approaching this vital step: developing the human foundation on which successful programs can be constructed.

a. Know Your People

This section is concerned with the question: "Whose acquaintance should be made?" A general answer could correctly be: (1) those

most likely to influence a program toward its failure, (2) those capable of influencing a program toward its success, and (3) those with insight into the factors of the human environment that are relevant to the new program.

But that still leaves the question of "who?" as nebulous. EXHIBIT 4.1 expresses the same information more specifically. The nine groups listed in EXHIBIT 4.1 should be determined for the program. This can be done by progressive development of information: each person contacted provides leads or suggestions of others for contacting. Of course, it is not necessary to contact all persons suggested, but if a person is suggested by several persons, he is likely to be one who should be included. The types of persons who should be included are discussed in the following paragraphs.

(1) Those in programs serving the Aging. Any new program or organization to serve the Aging is likely to be looked upon with fear and anxiety by those already engaged in programs and agencies serving the Aging. Until those persons have an adequate basis for being assured that they, their jobs, their programs, and their organizations are not threatened, they probably will be cautious, at least, toward the new activity. Even if their own activity is not threatened, and they know that, the new existence could arouse jealousy, competition, and anger. After all, they may consider the services to be provided by the new activity as being areas for future expansion by their own operation. Good relations here are most essential, and at least a strong effort should be made to develop them.

(2) Those whose programs could serve the Aging. Here, the reaction could be: (1) that's our territory for future expansion, (2) why didn't we think of that?, (3) we're already doing that (even if they aren't), (4) our services and/or clients are more important, or (5) they're going to try making us look bad. These and possibly other adverse reactions can generate all types of adverse efforts by those whose programs could serve, but aren't serving, the Aging. We must never lose sight of the fact that fear can cause the very worst, the very basest, the lowest of animal-type reactions. And fear stimulates the imagination to create even more reasons for fear. On the other hand, personal acquaintance, friendship, and communications tend to thwart fear.

(3) Decision-makers of potential resources. Where ever resources (money, buildings, etc.) might develop, there are people who determine what programs receive the resources. Those people, and even those who influence them, need to be considered. They include politicians in resource-allocation capacities, community chest-type agencies, and agencies receiving and dispensing Federal funds. Perhaps this category of persons would not be in the earliest priority for acquaintance, but any delay should not be obviously lengthy. The requirement of local matching funds and the critical need for services not provided by Federal funds imply that local resources are important. Acquaintance with principal persons allocating those resources cannot begin too early.

EXHIBIT 4.1

SOME PEOPLE WHOSE ACQUAINTANCE IS NEEDED EARLY

(1) Those in programs serving the Aging

(2) Those whose programs could serve the Aging

(3) Decision-makers of potential resources

(4) Those who might feel threatened

(5) Selected community leaders

(6) Leaders of the Aging

(7) A sampling of the Aging

(8) Others having special insight

(9) Others who want to be heard

(4) Those who might feel threatened. Who are they? Some or all persons in this category might be listed in the other categories; some may not be. Why could a person feel threatened? Some reasons include: possible conflict or competition with an organization with which he is or has been personally related, threat to a person's prestige or decisions (regarding funding, programming, advice, influence, etc.), and potential conflict with organizations having major purchase arrangements that are favorable to an influential organization or person. Potential threat, whether real or imagined, can incite fear. As mentioned earlier, fear can result in many types of adverse consequences. Thus, it is better, if possible, to anticipate feelings of threat and to alleviate them before they arise.

(5) Selected community leaders. Some people wield extraordinary influence. It can be direct or indirect, and can result from: position, prestige, power, money, capability, or experience. Such people may be held in high esteem by others or the influence may be solely a respect for the power available to the person. Either way, the influence is important and should be within the circle of early acquaintance. These people can be spotted by listening to the names of persons frequently recommended by others. Care is needed, however, in recognizing that different people work in various ways: some hold formal positions while others influence through informal channels, and some operate in the limelight while others prefer to be inconspicuous.

(6) Leaders of the Aging. Leaders among the Aging, and especially those who concern themselves with needs of the Aging, should be contacted. Leaders, formal or informal, are supposed to know, understand, and represent; they have more than usual exposure and experience; and they may have objective views of the situations. They expect to be contacted; if they are ignored, they and others could speculate on the reasons, with imagination amplifying any problems and possibly creating others. These hurdles then are more difficult to conquer. Thus, early timing of acquaintance is critical.

(7) A sampling of the Aging. Early contact with the Aging should not be limited to their leaders. Personal observations: seeing, listening, examining, cannot be replaced--only supplemented--by reports. Some of the target population may have critical needs and deep understanding that have escaped the attention of their leaders, especially their formal leaders. Rarely are leaders a cross section of those they represent. Consequently, an effort is needed to comprehend the nature of the cross section: their problems, their efforts to confront them, their frustrations, and their aspirations. They need to know that you know, you care, and you will do your best to help them.

(8) Others having special insight. There are some persons who have insight into problems but who may not be active as recognized leaders. They may be good listeners, careful observers, astute in organizing and analyzing information, or situated in unique vantage points to gain good insight. These persons are difficult to spot, but are unlikely to be as time-sensitive as are those in positions of leadership, especially leaders who are in the public eye. Their wisdom can be especially valuable in understanding information, reconciling

conflicting observations, and piecing together a rational picture from the pieces.

(9) Others who want to be heard. If a person especially wants to be heard, then it is well to listen. He probably has a reason, or thinks he has a reason, for wanting to be heard. And his reason, or information, may fill a gap in your structure of information. Or, at least, his anxiety may be calmed by your attention. Both are important. And if this person turns out to be eccentric, forget not that eccentric, biased, and misleading information, sometimes intentional, can come from each of the information sources you contact. An awareness, a sensitivity to this problem is a great asset.

Contacts are important. And while good contacts are important any time, early timing is very vital for certain contacts. While it may not be possible to visit all such persons early, it is worth while to be aware of those who are temporarily skipped. And although a brief courtesy visit may be better than none, it does not serve the role of recognizing the person's insight that you need to gain. A short visit to establish acquaintance shows respect to the individual and his status, but it can arouse suspicion of intent or lack of interest in learning from him if not followed quickly by a longer visit.

Insights gained from these visits are valuable in themselves, but they also bring to life the real meaning of data, enabling understanding and interpretation otherwise difficult or unlikely to develop. Certainly in regards to a program for the Aging, people are especially important. Success in serving the Aging's needs is the most important, and people will determine whether this is feasible.

b. Look and Listen

The primary purpose of the initial visits is to get acquainted: the development of good relations. Other purposes, such as gaining information, may be important, but they should not interfere with attempting to establish a good foundation of human relations.

Certainly a secondary purpose is gaining insight and understanding of human factors that can assist or deter needed program developments for the Aging. This, however, is preliminary, precautionary information that helps you piece together a framework, a jigsaw puzzle, of the program environment.

Becoming initially acquainted, when you have a reason--and others know that you do--is somewhat equivalent to crawling and probing through a mine field without a mine detector: you never know when you may touch a sensitive spot and trigger an explosion. You have no knowledge of the feelings and sensitivities of the persons involved; to learn them, of course, is part of the reason why you are there. Yet, to trigger their unknown sensitivities against you is what you don't want.

How, then, can you make the best impressions, cultivate good relationships, and gather leads and insight, without stumbling on sensitive areas that could result in debate and adverse feelings?

Some suggestions are listed in EXHIBIT 4.2 and are described in the following paragraphs.

(1) Get prior insight. It can be a help to gain some prior knowledge of the person to be visited. Some idea of interests, temperament, sensitive topics, biases, and reliability can assist you in developing an initial good relationship and to avoid stumbling on unknown problems. Probably the most reliable advance information is the "personal interests," as these usually are sufficiently detached from professional matters that they are less likely to be incorrect. Hobbies and avocations are personal interests of most of us, and are good topics for getting acquainted. Other advance information may or may not be accurate, but still can help one have a better "road map" to follow than if it is all pure uncertainty. Prior insight is only precautionary, but it can be useful in formulating an awareness of what may lie ahead.

(2) First, get acquainted. Business can be more easily discussed in a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere. Tensions are eased by first developing some personal acquaintance of each other. Furthermore, the primary purpose of initial visits is: becoming acquainted, establishing mutual respect and trust, and exploring common ground on which future relationships can be constructed. It is here that hobbies, avocations, and historical setting can be discussed, of course, without being inquisitive on matters that could be touchy. This is where the door to further communications is opened, closed, or camouflaged. This is a prelude to the future; it determines the future.

(3) Be yourself. It is easier to relax, get acquainted, and explore concerns if one is himself. An artificial front that camouflages your real self may--and only may--be a temporary advantage. Even if a temporary advantage is gained, the longer-term relations could be worse due to presenting an unreal initial image. If there is a need for camouflaging your real self, maybe it is the real self that needs changing rather than just the image which it casts.

(4) Let your motive be your asset. Can you imagine a better product, a better motive, than assisting the development of services that provide for needs of the Aging? This is the major asset you have, and is one that can be used and reused as an advantage. It's like motherhood; one would hardly dare to be against it. Of course, priorities could cause one to prefer allocating resources to other areas of need. This is a judgment factor, but need not prevent deep appreciation for the needs of the Aging. How, when, how much, and to whom are questions on which opinions can differ. However, to determine real needs of the Aging and finding ways of serving those needs is an objective that should muster the best of support, or at least provide an excellent foundation for that support.

(5) Listen attentively. This is very important. The more you listen, the more you will learn and the less you will say. Listen carefully and obviously; your undivided attention should be given the person or persons you are visiting. Listen to the selection of words, inflection and stress, and voice tone and temperament. They reveal part

EXHIBIT 4.2

SOME SUGGESTIONS REGARDING EARLY CONTACTS

(1) Get prior insight

(2) First, get acquainted

(3) Be yourself

(4) Let your motive be your asset

(5) Listen attentively

(6) Ask general, open-ended questions

(7) Say little

(8) Observe carefully

(9) Remember how little you know

(10) Express thanks and cooperation

of the meaning of the sentences and statements. Taking notes on paper is best avoided, except for some reference information (address, name, location, etc.) that the person might suggest. Developing personal acquaintance is the first order of business; gathering insight and information is secondary and should not interfere with the first. Almost everyone appreciates a good listener.

(6) Ask general, open-ended questions. Few persons care to endure a barrage of questions, although having our opinions requested pampers our pride. Questions that can be answered in a word or two can cause one to feel like he is in court or in a quiz. Open-ended questions, on the other hand, allow one to express his deepest, most complete feelings. This enables one to feel that he is really expressing himself, and usually we enjoy doing that. Questions like: "What is your opinion---?," "What do you think of---?," and "What has your experience shown---?" allow one to answer on what he deems to be most important. As further probing on a question is needed, follow-up questions can be used, such as: "And what then?," "Do you have other opinions?," and "And what did you think?"

(7) Say little. You are there to make acquaintance and to learn, not to impart information. Certainly, conversation must be a two-way affair. But when you are listening, you are learning and you are impressing; that is important. When you talk, you are not learning, but you may be impressing. And they may not be the impressions that you want to make. Consequently, listening is safe and informative; talking may be neither.

(8) Observe carefully. The message conveyed by a person is not limited to the words and phrases which he utters. Nor is the meaning revealed only in the character of these sentences and how they are spoken. We also reveal our thoughts in our motions, our mannerisms, our eyes, and our facial expressions. Thus, an expanded concept of "listening" might include these observations as well. They are needed to receive the full message: intended and unintended.

(9) Remember how little you know. This is an asset here. At this stage, you are not expected to know much, to have opinions, or to project into the future. You are learning, and the best way to learn is to seek insight from others, and then listen. It is not necessary to reveal how much or how little you know, what insight you already have, or what facts and data you have digested. Furthermore, we have every reason to be humble and cautious about our knowledge, as there is so much to know that we can know only a small part of it, at best.

(10) Express thanks and cooperation. Expression of appreciation is a good way to end these meetings. After all, the other person has contributed his time, knowledge, and opinions. He deserves your thanks, probably expects it, and would likely appreciate it. Expression of cooperation also may be appropriate, especially if it is general and not specific. It is likely too early to know what forms of cooperation may be best, and with whom. But general expression of a willingness to cooperate binds no one to anything. It conveys intent, philosophy, and a character of doing business.

All of these approaches are merely guidelines to making early acquaintances. They are intended to be used flexibly, not rigidly, by adapting to the person and the situation. Need for major deviation from them, however, should be recognized in advance, if possible, in order to anticipate the consequences and to feel assured that a correct decision is being made.

c. Understand their Interests

In making acquaintances and exploring the human environment, it is well to understand the range of possible interests that can cause a person to react unfavorably or favorably to your approach. By knowing their likely interests, it reduces the "random search" to the smaller problem of maintaining a sensitivity to specific possibilities.

EXHIBIT 4.3 lists a few such feasible interests. Others could be listed, and should be noted on your own lists, based on the circumstances prevailing or likely to exist in your region. No such list, however, can ever anticipate all possibilities; they only note those most likely to be encountered. An unexpected interest can exist, and may or may not be exposed, or could surface in a very misleading way.

Many of the items in EXHIBIT 4.3 can be either negative or positive, although they are listed to illustrate the most likely stimulators to responses you may receive. An old adage serves here: "A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush." If a person is now employed, has current commitments or association, or is receiving prestige with existing activities that he thinks might be threatened or receive less advantage, then this is likely to overshadow any new possibilities that might materialize from new organizations and activity.

EXHIBIT 4.3 does not list interests of the Aging; that is, those Aging needs that programs are developed to serve directly. Those are a different category of needs and interests. However, the Aging also may have many of the same interests as others, and, therefore, may have some of the interests noted in the Exhibit.

(1) Employment. If a person currently is employed in some way that he thinks may be affected adversely, directly or indirectly, then he is likely to be defensive of his activity by resisting any new, external related developments. It is more likely that adverse possibilities will come to his mind more readily and more influentially than will favorable possibilities. This is not limited to his employment; instead it could encompass relatives and friends, and could include employment that provides remote services that might be affected by the development of another activity.

(2) Opportunity. This encompasses just about any way in which a person is now benefiting or thinks he may benefit from an existing activity that could be adversely affected by your developments. Such opportunities include: (a) financial exploitation, (b) personal

EXHIBIT 4.3

EXAMPLES OF INTERESTS OF PERSONS IN NEW PROGRAMS ON AGING

Negative Interests	Positive Interests
(1) Employment	(6) New challenges
(2) Opportunity	(7) New leadership roles
(3) Commitment	(8) New cooperation possibilities
(4) Preference	(9) New problem resolution
(5) Prestige	(10) New strength and reinforcement

relationships, and (c) problem pacification. Current programs can have financial benefit other than employment, and personal acquaintance (volunteers, Aging, or influential persons) can be more important to one than a new development. Problem pacification relates to the fact that many persons would rather push aside or pacify problems than have them exposed, probing peoples' consciences, or causing community unrest. These, and other situations, are such opportunities that could be disturbed, and thus disturbing, to a person.

(3) Commitment. Present, past, and potentially future commitments can bias a person's thinking. If these commitments (involvement, support, association, etc.) have been satisfying or beneficial, then it is likely that they induce a degree of protection for them. Even if one's commitment has ended, if he continues to receive satisfaction from the continuing prestige of the organization, then he could continue interest in seeing the organization prosper. Thus, whatever one's commitment is or has been to an existing activity or organization, it is likely that it has some influence on the person's attitude toward new, related activity.

(4) Preference. One may prefer placing new emphasis on youth instead of the Aging, community structures rather than services, or private rather than public programs. He may have little sympathy with pouring tax money into programs for people who he feels should have planned and saved for their own future needs. Sometimes, these preferences are based on sound insight into the total community needs, and a judgment that certain other needs are more critical, more strategic, or more productive allocations for the available scarce resources. On other occasions, the preferences may be more personal or more emotional. Regardless of their precise nature, they can be real and must be recognized.

(5) Prestige. Call it what you wish: prestige, honor, reputation, face, or ego; it is a vital force affecting the thinking of most of us. Often, we are unaware of the degree to which we are influenced by this factor. Yet, it can be very strong. If one is or has been associated with a success, he is likely to resist its being lessened or threatened. If he thinks he made a contribution or if he sees others associating his name with an organization, he probably will protect the continued success of the organization. In part, he is protecting his own prestige.

(6) New challenges. New programs and activities mean new opportunities for people. Whereas existing challenges may have become routine, stagnant, and mundane, new developments can generate new horizons for interested people. This possibility, even without promise, can be convincing to people who can and will look ahead. This is a basis for interest, cooperation, and support.

(7) New leadership roles. New organizations and programs open new opportunities for leadership. Many leaders need dynamic situations, providing stimulating roles and demands for their involvement. Leadership, of course, can be in various forms: management positions, committee chairmen, advisory roles, and project leaders. These include both paid and volunteer opportunities. Thus, such opportunities can

stimulate responses that assist and cooperate even in early contacts.

(8) New cooperation possibilities. Many excellent possibilities can develop for cooperation between existing organizations serving the Aging (directly or indirectly) and a new agency on Aging. This is especially the case since it is the policy for agencies on Aging to provide or arrange programs through other organizations. Thus, persons who are concerned about continued strength and service by existing organizations can have their fears eased by noting that cooperation, not competition, is the policy. In fact, if the agency on Aging establishes a policy and procedure of providing support especially to those organizations that prove themselves to be effective, efficient, innovative, and diligent, then organizations interested in additional resources are more likely to be motivated positively toward further achievement. Intent of cooperation can be expressed early, and can be a stimulant to reciprocal cooperation.

(9) New problem resolution. Some people like to solve problems, and most people seem to want their efforts to be meaningful. New programs and new funds yield new possibilities for solving existing problems. Thus, a person who has interest, concern, and dedication for resolving problems faced by the Aging perhaps can be motivated to cooperation by recognizing the possibilities for new support, new funds, and new programs to help meet these needs. Early acquaintance and interest development can be aided by this potential.

(10) New strength and reinforcement. Solving problems of the Aging and serving their needs can seem like an endless task. Sometimes it can appear that the growth rate of needs exceeds the growth of services and programs to serve those needs. There can be strength in numbers, and reinforcement of existing programs and activity can be a relief to those frustrated by mediocrity or inadequacy. Consequently, whether a person looks upon a new agency or program as a threat or a reinforcement, or as a dilution or strengthening of efforts, depends on how one views the matter. Early contact can dispel fears, replace negative with positive views, and generate creative relations out of potentially destructive attitudes. It depends on which way one looks at the situation.

It is indeed important to be aware of the various interests that people can have that can influence their thinking, negatively or positively, toward you, your organization, and your responsibilities. Furthermore, when visiting persons, it is useful to detect their personal interests and thinking that cause them to think as they do toward your situation. If that is done, then possibilities for resolving their fears, concerns, or misapprehensions can be developed. You will find that communications, genuineness, and dedication assist in making a breakthrough in each of these methods.

d. Sell Yourself

Until you have sold yourself, it is doubtful that you will sell anything else. Selling yourself, developing a good relationship: that is the primary purpose of the initial visits.

If initial contacts do not develop a favorable beginning, then considerable energy and time may be required to regain even a point of neutrality. A good start with favorable relations can be a strategic boost to a beginning program. Having bridged the gap between you and the person visited, you are a long way toward the resolution of other problems faced in launching a new activity or program.

EXHIBIT 4.4 lists a few suggestions for selling yourself, and the following sections expound on them.

(1) Be prepared. You can be prepared for making a new acquaintance. Your knowledge of a person before meeting him can help you to know his likes, dislikes, principal activities, etc. To know some of these in advance can help you "break the ice" and get acquainted. It can help you know what to talk about and what to avoid. And it can assist you in accomplishing the most in a reasonable period.

(2) Be yourself. Perhaps you doubt that you can be anyone else. But we do often change personalities, camouflage our ways, and become artificial in order to impress. To be alert, dedicated, and concerned is different from creating artificial characteristics. Synthetic or artificial ways may serve an immediate purpose, but if and when the artificiality is detected, it is likely to stimulate an adverse reaction by the person you wanted to impress. We prefer that people reflect themselves; we tend not to trust those whose personality changes to fit the occasion.

(3) Be friendly. We like to be associated with people who radiate friendliness and happiness. Smiles melt a lot of ice and crumble many barriers. Life has enough frustrations and sadness without one attaching himself to more. Thus, a genuinely friendly approach is more likely to be successful in stimulating a favorable and open response. Watch out, though; an extreme bubbling, superaggressive personality is interpreted by many people as being hollow, artifical, and repulsive. A middle-of-the-road approach, friendly but modest, personality is a good reflection to develop in an approach with people.

(4) Be interested. Being interested in the activities and concerns of the other person goes a long way in developing his interest in you. Naturally, this interest must be made visible to the other person; otherwise it fails to achieve part of its purpose. But, of course, you wouldn't be making the person's acquaintance if you weren't interested. True! You and he know that. But he may show some enthusiasms or concerns that do not mesh with yours; they can be of interest to you, however, if you let them. And why shouldn't you be interested in his concerns if you expect him to be interested in yours?

(5) Be respectful. We like to be respected, to be shown respect. And we like for our views to be respected. It is not necessary that we agree with the views of another person in order to respect him and perhaps his views. We can show our respect by listening, by responding with interest, and by courteous treatment. Respect need not be shown only to elders. We can respect all people of any age, any socio-economic level, and level of education and intelligence. Genuine respect costs nothing, yet is so rewarding.

EXHIBIT 4.4

SOME WAYS TO SELL YOURSELF DURING EARLY CONTACTS

(1) Be prepared

(2) Be yourself

(3) Be friendly

(4) Be interested

(5) Be respectful

(6) Don't criticize

(7) Do compliment

(8) Leave promptly

(6) Don't criticize. It is so tempting to disagree, to criticize, and to argue. It takes self discipline and restraint to avoid these tendencies. But, you say, you have as much right to state your views as he does. True. But do you want the consequences? Which is more important: venting your views or developing the kind of good relations essential to a new activity or program? Sometimes you may have to choose. "Count to ten," goes an old saying. And while you count, weigh the consequences of each alternative.

(7) Do compliment. Everyone likes a compliment. Surely you can find something to compliment: an obvious hobby, a picture, office decor, clothing, a community service performed, etc. Compliments show that you notice, you care, and you appreciate. A compliment implies that both of you have something in common, even if it is only a common taste or appreciation. They pamper our egos, and with so much criticism and adversity around, we all need it. Compliments are free, but highly motivational.

(8) Leave promptly. Time is our most limited asset. Respect his, and show that you value yours. This is vital to him, to you, and to your purpose of visiting. Certainly rude abruptness is neither good nor suggested. But respecting one's time by limiting your interview can aid your cause. Generally, in the United States, if in doubt, it is best to depart too soon than too late. A satisfactory interview needs to end with a friendly, courteous, prompt departure.

All of these suggestions are practical guidelines. Although they are common sense in human behavior, some of them are not as easy to apply as one might think. We don't realize how often we violate these rules, and how often we fail to notice opportunities to apply them. These are not the only guidelines to selling yourself. But they can go a long way in helping to achieve it.

e. Find Keys to Cooperation

Many forms of life can survive and thrive more successfully by working together. Wolves, ants, wild geese, and red snapper fish are quite different forms of life that live and work together for their mutual benefit. Man, also, is a social being, and tends to aggretate in groups and form social systems. He has learned through long experience that he is more likely to get what he wants if he cooperates with others in seeking shared or mutual goals. He also seems to enjoy the act of working together, of benefitting other people. Man uses both competition and cooperation to achieve his goals.

Cooperation is not limited to activities in which both parties benefit from the same act. The word cooperate means: to act or work with another or others; to associate with another or others for mutual benefit. Consequently, there are three ways in which cooperation can occur: (1) you cooperating with others, (2) others cooperating with you, and (3) you and others cooperating together.

An agency on Aging is in an excellent position to cooperate with others, as its services to the Aging are provided by other organizations, supported directly or indirectly by them. Thus, the

philosophy of the Federal act providing for the agencies is based on cooperation rather than competition. This is an asset in approaching others in seeking their cooperation with the agencies on Aging.

Whether others cooperate with an Agency on Aging depends, in part, on: (1) your ways, (2) their ways, and (3) their views of the likely results of cooperation vs. non-cooperation. How you approach them, how your personality reacts with theirs, and how they generally view you and your influence--are your ways that help determine their response. But they, too, may have preferred ways of doing things. They may be protective of their area rather than cooperative within it; their leadership may feel uncomfortable in the complex world of cooperation; or they may be infected with "Peters' Principle" and adhere rigidly to their internal policy and procedures manual.

Cooperating together is even more complex, as it implies mutual benefit from the working relationship. Nevertheless, this form of cooperation probably arouses less suspicion than the other two forms, as it more clearly implies a need for working together. Often, one-way cooperation causes people to look for hidden benefits that they feel logically must exist in order to spur the act or desire for cooperation. People want to see a closed loop of relationship: if you want to cooperate with us, how are you benefitting that makes you want to cooperate with us and our activities? We tend to be more comfortable with cooperation if we can see and accept this closed-loop picture and all of its parts. Consequently, the wholeness of cooperation often needs to be portrayed to stimulate the most complete response of cooperation. Since agencies on Aging have a charge, a responsibility, to assist in serving needs of the Aging, there should be no need for the benefits of cooperation to be undisclosed.

As noted in mans' religious and behavioral writings, it is easier to see the constraints of others than to see those of our own. Thus, as we examine others with a microscope to examine their ways and likely reactions, it is essential also to examine ourselves with the same microscope. Our eyes peering at ourselves through the microscope should be objective: we must ask ourselves how does each group or person likely view us, what do we portray to them, and how can our ways be modified to enlist a more positive response from them. In this way, we can become more deserving of the cooperation that we seek. Cooperation develops from mutual interests, mutual appreciation, and mutual understanding. Its results can be highly beneficial in achieving objectives of Aging programs.

EXHIBIT 4.5 shows some modes, or types, of cooperation that can benefit organizations and programs serving the Aging; these modes are detailed in the following sections. These are some general means or methods of achieving results through cooperation; consequently, they are not limited to any type of activity or organization providing services to the Aging and others. In fact, many organizations serve a segment of people that do not correspond to those of primary concern to agencies on Aging; but their segment may include some or all of your segment. Careful analysis of the interests and focus of each organization can uncover some new areas or ways for cooperation.

EXHIBIT 4.5

EXAMPLES OF WAYS TO COOPERATE

Directions of Cooperation	Modes of Cooperation
(1) You cooperate with others	(1) Sharing in planning
(2) Others cooperate with you	(2) Sharing of information
(3) You and others cooperate together	(3) Surveys and studies
	(4) Coordinating committee
	(5) Solicitation of funds
	(6) Solicitation of volunteers
	(7) Sharing of personnel
	(8) Training programs

(1) Sharing in planning. Planning is a process of examining needs, establishing objectives, exploring ways for achieving the objectives, and developing a plan of action, evaluation, and corrective action. Cooperation through working together in planning can involve some or all of these segments of planning. The benefits of shared planning include: (a) benefitting from insight, information, and experience of other organizations, (b) eliminating the element of surprise and the building of defenses in preparation for potential surprises, and (c) establishing future support through mutual commitments formed in the process of planning. Thus, two aspects of shared planning are especially useful: (a) mutual planning of objectives and program alternatives to eliminate surprise and gain mutual commitment, and (b) mutual exploration of needs and resources to minimize duplication and competition and to gain from information available from each other.

(2) Sharing of information. A solid base of relevant information is essential for planning and developing effective programs for serving the needs of the Aging. Yet, information often is inadequate, and it can be expensive and can require much time to collect. Sometimes it is impractical or prohibitive to obtain it. Yet, often, much information is already maintained by another agency. Shared use of the information, or parts of it, can multiply the service value of the information. Some information may be confidential and its use restricted accordingly. However, such information may be confidential only in part, making it possible to obtain: (a) non-confidential data from classified sources, (b) averages or aggregate data from such sources, or (c) camouflaged information that adequately serves the needs.

(3) Surveys and studies. Combined effort in making surveys and studies can save both time and expense for each cooperating organization. Furthermore, shared effort can sometimes make possible more extensive surveys or studies than otherwise would be feasible. Even if survey needs of cooperating organizations are not identical, sufficient common need may exist to justify merging the studies into a common effort. Furthermore, public cooperation and respect is likely if duplication of contact and requests are minimized.

(4) Coordinating committee. Shared coordination of planning and programming can be achieved through a coordinating committee that includes representatives of cooperating organizations. Through this medium, a more comprehensive examination of needs fulfillment is feasible, and a more thorough mobilization of resources to fill those needs can be achieved. Coordination often is complex, frustrating, and slow, because the democratic process is inherently cumbersome and time-consuming. Nevertheless, in the long run, cooperation via coordination tends to cause fewer obstacles to be thrust in the paths of progress than result from more independent, competitive, and autocratic approaches. Often, the indirect results of the process of shared coordination via a committee are as valuable as the direct, intentional coordination which the committee is formed to achieve.

(5) Solicitation of funds. Financial solicitations can especially benefit from cooperation. Different organizations often have different spheres of influence; combined campaigns enable tapping of more

sources and obtaining higher levels of financial contribution. Individuals and organizations dislike frequent solicitations, especially if there is considerable similarity in their application or in the organizations making the requests. On the other hand, a combined solicitation implies that cooperation also probably is being achieved in the use of those funds. This, in turn, implies that the funds likely are achieving higher effectiveness and efficiency in the services and programs they generate. With this picture, contributors tend to be more generous, and are likely to take more time to listen to the solicitation presentation.

(6) Solicitation of volunteers. Willing, capable, and dependable volunteers, like money, are scarce. And their time is limited. Recognizing this, it can help organizations having common goals and joint programs to cooperate and sometimes share volunteer talent. This is even more valid in using scarce, specialized talent, such that combined application of the volunteer time can benefit more than one organization, activity, or program. Furthermore, people are more likely to make their time available if it is likely to benefit more extensively the kinds of needs and objectives they deem to be important.

(7) Sharing of personnel. Employed personnel, too, can be shared. This may be uncommon, but sometimes it is the uncommon that crumbles walls of resistance. Sharing of employees is more feasible than are shared employees. The former is when an employee of one organization is allowed to assist another organization, whereas the latter is the part-time employment of a common person in two or more organizations. Sharing employees is especially logical when: (a) there is a common objective of the cooperating organizations, and (b) one of the organizations has specialized talent vitally needed in small time periods by another. Sharing employees also can enable organizations to assist each other during short overload periods or during emergencies. Generally, it is best that: (a) sharing be limited to the exceptional situation rather than the rule, or (b) the sharing be of sufficient value to both organizations that the inconvenience is not considered a burden.

(8) Training programs. This is one of the easiest and most logical areas for cooperation. It is more specific and confined (time period), and both factors simplify sharing. There are specific programs, specific costs, and specific facilities, all of which enable visible factors to be discussed or negotiated. Furthermore, training programs normally run for a limited period of time, making even questionable relationships tolerable. An advantage to sharing training programs is the high cost of outstanding training expertise and materials. Sharing these costs and/or benefits can help justify that which is critically needed, or just helpful, even under the constraint of limited funds.

Cooperation may be considered as unorthodox in a competitive society, but it need not be so. Cooperation and competition can complement each other. Competition spurs us to higher levels of achievemetn, while cooperation enables more efficient use of scarce resources. When we can envision common objectives being achieved more effectively through cooperation, it would seem that the organizations involved

would explore methods acceptable to all and beneficial to each organization in its part of the total task.

Meeting the people: getting to know then, and them know you---is a strategic key to the success of developing any organization or activity on Aging. The human environment determines the acceptability and potential for programs, so this human environment must be cultivated before the program seeds are planted.

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Note: The numbers preceding each bibliography listing are the numbers of the same listings in the complete BIBLIOGRAPHY at the end of this Manual.

5. LEARNING THE FACTS

Decisions should be based on facts. Planning is a process of decision-making concerning future courses of action. Since planning determines the directions and areas of tomorrow's decisions and actions, it is especially vital that planning be solidly based on relevant facts.

Prudent planning requires a compromise between completeness of information and timeliness of information. In many cases, there might be more and better information that could be obtained for use in planning. However, one cannot wait forever before using the information and moving on with other stages of the planning process. Hopefully, the most vital, productive information is explored first, with less important information left to be examined if time and funds permit.

Perhaps one is never sure that he has the facts, or that he has clearly distinguished fact from fiction. Becoming more confident of your information is a progressive process of collecting, organizing, and analyzing relevant data. As initial data are organized, gaps and inadequacies become evident. And as the organized data are analyzed, conflicts and questions arise that point to a need for more specific information.

We don't realize how often our decisions are based on opinion, gossip, and inadequate collection of information. Our decisions and projections can be no more reliable than the information on which they are based. And plans made on unreliable foundations can doom programs, at best, to serving the wrong needs or to less-effective service of any needs.

The five sections in this chapter are concerned with obtaining information and organizing it for further steps in planning. They are concerned with published data as well as data from observations and surveys. Also, they recognize the relevance of historical data, current information, and speculations of future data. Thus, relevant data, in whatever form it exists or may be available, is considered in this step of the planning process.

a. Using Your Library

Your public library is a storehouse of information and assistance. It is the local source of many books, journals, and documents, and the place to obtain counsel and assistance in securing many other informative materials from other locations.

Libraries organize their materials and hold them according to a standard identification code. In addition, one or more index cards are made for each book, report, etc., and these are filed by author

and by subject to assist the public in finding the materials they need. Libraries also have personnel who are educated or trained to help you find the information you want.

Few people realize what great wealth of information libraries contain, and few people make effective use of libraries in finding the information they need for their decisions and planning. EXHIBIT 5.1 shows some materials and services that are available at many libraries. All libraries contain several of them and large libraries usually provide all of them.

(1) Census reports. The decennial census of population is the most complete and accurate basic source of data on the characteristics of the population. Using this data source, many specialized reports and state or regional reports are prepared and made available by various agencies and organizations. A vast amount and variety of data on the Aging are available, as well as data on all ages that enable projections showing the numbers of persons in Aging age groups that will likely live in the geographical areas. Census data include not only numbers of the Aging, but also they are detailed by various classifications and characteristics. Other censuses and surveys also are available, including the Census of Manufacturers and reports that provide annual estimates of population and their characteristics based on sampling surveys and other information.

(2) Relevant books. A library is a storehouse of knowledge and expertise. Many of their books are based on research and studies requiring many man-years of time. And many books are written by outstanding experts, based on their accumulated knowledge, experience, and research. Reading and studying their books is almost equivalent to probing them during an extended personal visit, receiving their professional counsel. In this respect, libraries are files of information and expertise, with assistance available to assist you in locating the materials that can provide specifically the data and counsel you are seeking. Of course, all information, whether written, oral, or visual, should be examined for accuracy and relevance. Some people are more objective, more accurate, and/or more precise than are others. Thus, analysis and comparison, and careful attention to the footnotes, are needed to assure that you use the most accurate and relevant data and that you use it properly.

(3) Journals and reports. Libraries not only have books, magazines, and newspapers; they also have monthly and quarterly journals and many varieties of reports of data, studies, and research. These contain specialized information that can be useful in planning for serving the Aging. Journals provide current, up-to-date information, often accompanied by interpretation of the data and its possible impact on certain problems or concerns. Journals also provide articles, papers, and abstracts to help authors expose their knowledge to the public. Reports--from government agencies, private organizations, and educational institutions--provide the public with results of studies and investigations from all over the world. Many reports include national, regional, and local data that can be useful to agencies and personnel planning for the Aging. Furthermore, even the study of methodology, restrictions on data applicability, and data interpretation can be

EXHIBIT 5.1

MATERIALS AND SERVICES AVAILABLE AT MANY LIBRARIES

(1) Census reports

(2) Relevant books

(3) Journals and reports

(4) Indices of journal articles

(5) Special collections

(6) Special studies

(7) Specialized equipment

(8) Readers' assistants

(9) Research assistance

(10) Interlibrary loans

useful in expanding one's professional abilities. It is useful to determine which journals are likely to have information relevant to your program planning and to peruse them regularly.

(4) Indices of journal articles. Indices are monthly and annual reports of all articles published in a certain group of journals. For example, the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature reviews over 150 different periodicals, including Aging, Consumer Reports, Hobbies, Mental Hygiene, Parks and Recreation, and Today's Education. You can determine the key words of the subject you are exploring, and examine the index to find those or similar key words. There you will find all articles (in periodicals they review) having content concerned with that key word. Of course, each article may be indexed under several key words to assist you in finding the articles. The indices reviewed to find articles on planning useful in preparation of this Manual included the following:

(a) Applied Science and Technology Index
(b) Business Periodicals Index
(c) Current Index to Journals in Education
(d) Public Affairs Information Service Bulletin
(e) Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature
(f) Social Sciences and Humanities Index

(5) Special collections. Many libraries have special collections of books, reports, papers, and other materials that focus on a certain geographical area, a famous or important person, or a specific topic such as Aging, environment, or energy. Studies and materials concerning your state or geographical region are especially likely to include information useful to agencies and programs on Aging. This is because: (a) those materials focus on characteristics of the people and their environment of direct concern to your activities, and (b) concerns of the Aging involve or touch on so many aspects of the local problems, conditions, and activities.

(6) Special studies. Studies (investigations, surveys, analyses, and research) focus special effort on a specific topic or problem. The reports on these studies are especially useful and revealing. These studies often probe well beyond the current boundaries of published information, or at least provide new analyses and insights into the meaning of existing data. Special studies can be very enlightening. Caution, however, should be exercised in their interpretation and use. Before accepting and using information from a special study, one should note such facts as: why the study was made, how it was funded, objectives of the study, and the methods used for collecting and analyzing information in the study. Such information usually is included at the end or beginning of a reliable published study, and this information can help determine the applicability and reliability of the study for your use.

(7) Specialized equipment. Libraries have various types of equipment that aid in the storing, locating, examining, and copying of informational materials in the library and sometimes among libraries. Information, even reproductions of books, journals, newspapers, and reports, is stored on microfilm, microfishe, and tapes. These storage

media give versatility, economy, and convenience in storage and use of information. Computers are used to store limited information about publications, enabling quick search of massive numbers of publications for lists of information sources likely to be of interest to your needs. Key words are used as a basis for computer searches. Equipment is available for reading and viewing materials on specialized media such as microfilm and microfishe, and various types of reproduction equipment enables copies to be made of certain materials for convenient, future use.

(8) Readers' assistants. Libraries contain so many materials on so many topics and in so many different forms that it may not be easy to find what you want, or at least to be sure that you find all that is available of what you want or need. Librarians serve, in part, to help the public find or obtain the information materials that they need. They may even probe your thinking to be sure you are searching for what you need. This assistance can be invaluable, saving time, frustration, and failure in your search for the most relevant information.

(9) Research assistance. Some of the larger libraries provide research assistance to the public or to those organizations contributing to the cost of providing that service. Even by phone, you can describe your needs to a research assistant at the library, and he will perform the information and materials search for you. Of course, often research for information can go on and on. Recognizing this, a research assistant will attempt to find those materials most relevant to your needs. When you review those (or copies of them), you may have further directions and requests for the assistant.

(10) Interlibrary loans. Almost every library is limited in how much it can store and make available for public use. Consequently, it is increasingly common for libraries to borrow from each other in order to provide the public with more complete access to the total collection of published materials. This service provides one with access to books and copies of other documents that are available from any of the cooperating libraries. Of course, you may need to know the specific book or document that you want in order to request it.

Libraries are service agencies, not just storehouses of publications. The most likely place to find a concentration of data and related information on a subject is in the library. They can provide invaluable assistance in finding relevant materials within their own facilities and in obtaining them from cooperating libraries. This is not the only source of facts, but many relevant facts are likely to be available there, regardless of what the problem, activity, or project may be. Effective use of libraries can help you build a firm, factual foundation for your planning programs for the Aging.

b. Finding Other Resources

There are other sources of information that can be useful in planning programs on Aging. Since information is a basis for action, it is worth the effort to make the contacts needed to be well aware of what data are available where.

Sometimes the local library will have, or have access to, some of the publications issued by these sources. On the other hand, information may not be published and thus not available in any library facility. Consequently, one should not assume that a library, or any other source, necessarily has the information available from the other sources.

EXHIBIT 5.2 lists some of these other sources, and they are discussed in the following sections.

(1) Administration on Aging. This, of course, is a primary source of information on Aging. Special studies financed through them or prepared by them are available from them or at sources known to them. Furthermore, they can advise on the availability and source of information to serve specific needs. You can reach them at the address:

Administration on Aging
Office of Human Development, DHEW
Washington, D. C.

(2) Government Printing Office. This is the source of many government publications that are available for sale. You can either specify the publications you want or request publication lists on the topic of interest to you. Keep in mind that several months may pass before you receive a reply from them. Their address is as follows:

Superintendent of Documents
U. S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D. C. 20402

(3) United States Government Manual. This is a publication that lists all federal government agencies. It is available for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 20402. The 1974-75 issue costs $5.75. Here you can obtain the names and addresses of any agency, many of which have publications, provide research service, or help you find the information you want. Two of the many such sources are: (1) Publications Sales Branch (NEPS), National Archives and Records Service, Washington, D. C. 20408; and (2) Reference Department, General References and Bibliography Division, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C. 20540.

(4) Welfare Department. Your local Welfare Department should have information about low-income families, and often wider information based on special studies or programs. They may or may not be in a position to share the information, especially personalized data.

(5) County Health Office. They may have information about low-income families and about the health status of the community concerning contagious diseases and certain other health problems.

(6) Mental Health Clinic. They may have information about the number of persons who have received treatment or consultation for mental health, and may have estimates of how many persons need treatment.

(7) Housing Authority. The local housing authority may have information

EXHIBIT 5.2

SOME SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON AGING

(1) Administration on Aging

(2) Government Printing Office

(3) United States Government Manual

(4) Welfare Department

(5) County Health Office

(6) Mental Health Clinic

(7) Housing Authority

(8) Chamber of Commerce

(9) Employment Office

(10) Public and private universities

(11) Cooperative Extension Service

(12) Other local or state organizations

(13) Gerontological Society

on the types and number of rental houses and the condition of those houses, such as plumbing, running water, septic tanks, etc.

(8) Chamber of Commerce. They may have information on local families in need, families with transportation problems, employment opportunities, and other statistics they or others have collected for examination of local needs.

(9) Employment Office. The local employment office is part of the State Employment Security Commission. They have data on employment and unemployment. In addition, they have information on jobs that are available and which organizations are particularly in funded programs of employment training, rehabilitation, etc.

(10) Public and private universities. Here you may find information in their libraries that is not available in the public libraries. The university libraries maintain special reports, research studies, lists of dissertation research studies at other universities, and other documents that are used especially for research, reference, and teaching. In addition, certain departments or institutes, such as Sociology, Education, and Gerontology, may have or know of information useful to organizations serving the Aging.

(11) Cooperative Extension Service. They have personnel throughout the state who serve to provide counsel, training, and services. Their state headquarters may have accumulated information and specialized expertise that is useful in programs on Aging.

(12) Other local or state organizations. These include churches, Salvation Army, Red Cross, Planning and Development District Offices, Councils of Government, State Offices of Education, State Divisionsof Vocational Rehabilitation, State Agencies for the Blind, and other facilities unique to each state and locality.

(13) Gerontological Society. This organization has its headquarters at: One Dupont Circle, N.W., Suite 520, Washington, D. C. 20036. Gerontology is a branch of knowledge dealing with the aging and with problems of the Aging. The Gerontological Society has many publications, reports, and materials useful to agencies and programs serving the Aging.

Information is available from many different sources. Most of it is readily available from the sources as a public service. Some, however, may be available only for restricted purposes and only through negotiation. Some information may be confidential and limited by law for use only by the source agency. Consequently, it is useful to survey the information sources and to document the types of information that are available, noting any restrictions on their availability or use.

c. Collecting Information

Considerable information is compiled and available in printed form through books, journals, and reports. On the other hand, some information may be needed that has not been collected and compiled. More often, this is the case with local, specialized information than

with national data that has more extensive use.

Collecting information involves obtaining data directly from people (usually a selected group or a sample of the group), either by using a mail survey or a personal-contact survey. Whether the survey is by mail or in person, some type of instrument (survey form of questions) is prepared and used.

Reliable, useful information is not simple to obtain. Many complexities are involved in collecting information and being sure you know what you have collected.

On the other hand, decisions usually are made with less-than-scientifically valid data. If they weren't, many decisions would be delayed indefinitely, and many other decisions would be delayed sufficiently to reduce or eliminate their value.

There is limited reliability associated with the most scientifically collected data, and even less reliability associated with most information on which our decisions are made. Consequently, we have every reason to be humble in the degree of confidence we place in the information we use in making our conclusions and decisions. This suggests that decisions and plans be made with caution. We should recognize the limited data, the limitations of data, and our limitations in making accurate use of data.

Fortunately, most decisions do not require data that are highly precise or highly accurate. For example, a community of 10,000 persons might be shown to have 3,000 senior citizens, with 1,000 of them having serious health problems due to malnutrition. Whatever decisions are to be made for alleviating this problem, it is unlikely to be critical to the decisions if they are in error by 10%, 20%, or perhaps even 50%. Such data are affected by the definitions of "senior citizens," "health problems," and "serious." Thus, if our decisions are in the right direction, focused on the most strategic needs, and implemented with adequate corrective action as a part of the plan and operational process, then our decisions may be sound even if based on less-than-desired information.

There are occasions, however, when precision and accuracy are important. Some organizations have a policy of not providing services or funds until the magnitude of the emergency reaches a certain level, such as affecting a certain number of families. Or, the anticipated benefits (value) must exceed the expected costs before funds are considered to be justified. Or, in a competitive struggle for limited funds, the needs to be served must be shown to be more worthy than other demands being considered. Thus, 500 may trigger an approval whereas 499 is less than adequate. Or, 20% may be significant when 19% is not, even though it might be 20% of 100 compared to 19% of 1,000.

Unfortunately, often surveys are taken not to discover the facts but, instead, to prove a point or to justify a request for funds. Thus, surveys frequently are unintentionally unreliable. Consequently, surveys can result in facts or fiction or data that lies somewhere in between.

These cautions are noted to provide an awareness, a sensitivity to the problems of getting the relevant facts for making sound decisions. Such an awareness helps the decision-maker to make more rational decisions even amid the vast uncertainties that may prevail. Decisions must be made, and usually within limited time constraints. We can only do the best we can under those constraints.

EXHIBIT 5.3 shows a pattern of steps in a typical process of collecting information by surveys, either by mail or in person. This does not describe the details of scientific research using surveys or of using psychology and statistics for preparing and validating surveys. Instead, these steps assist in information collection when less-than-scientific precision is needed or feasible.

(1) Decide what information to collect. Usually, the purpose of collecting information is, or should be, to provide a data base for making reliable conclusions or decisions. We collect that information, those data, that are needed for such decisions. This may not be easy. This starts with the problem or questions of concern, then the kinds of decisions that must be considered, and finally what additional information is needed in order to make those decisions. Here, it is helpful to prepare some type of information model, such as an outline or a grid, to assist in structuring the information needed and to detect information gaps and irrelevancy.

(2) Determine how it should be collected. Should the information be collected by questionnaires that are mailed out or that are taken by survey personnel and answered by interviews? Sometimes this depends on the availability of resources: money, personnel, and time. Often it depends on who is to be surveyed, and, especially on matters of Aging, many recipients of a mail survey may be unable or unwilling to complete and return the form. Under such circumstances, the returns received would be from a select segment of those receiving the forms, thus biasing the survey.

A third determinant of how collection of information should be made is the nature or content of the information to be collected. Some types of survey questions are self-explanatory but many are not. Some are more likely to be treated lightly or cursorily if received through the mail than if posed in person by the surveyor. And some questions are sequential, each depending on the answers to one or more previous questions, but the sequential relationship would be difficult for the individual to understand from reading the form.

Finally, under certain conditions it may be desirable for the individual responses to be influenced by the group responses. In such situations, the Delphi procedure can be used. The Delphi technique takes the same survey several times, and following each occasion provides the results of the prior survey to those who are being surveyed. In this way, the responses are made with the individual being aware of the prior group response to the questions he is answering again. Caution should be exercised here, as this technique can be misused by persons not aware of its purpose and limitations.

(3) Select who will be questioned. Actually, there are three questions involved here: (a) Where are the people to be surveyed, the

EXHIBIT 5.3

STEPS IN COLLECTING INFORMATION

(1) Decide what information to collect

(2) Determine how it should be collected

(3) Select who will be questioned

(4) Decide when the information will be collected

(5) Prepare your questions

(6) Prepare the questionnaire

(7) Prepare the transmitter

(8) Pretest the questionnaire

(9) Make needed changes in the questionnaire

(10) Take the survey

(11) Analyze the data and procedure

(12) Organize the data

geographical boundaries within which your survey will be confined? (b) What is the population within those boundaries to be surveyed, such as age limits, sex, and other characteristics defining the focus of the survey? (c) What segment of the target population will be surveyed: all of them, a random sample of them, or a select segment or group of them? The answer to (c) likely will be based on the time, money, and personnel available to conduct and analyze the survey.

The total larger population would provide the most complete and accurate information, but a random sample of that population will provide an approximation of the information needed. If a random sample is taken, care should be used to assure that it is, in fact, random: that every person in the target population has an equal chance of being selected and surveyed. Otherwise, the sample will be biased and may not represent the population.

(4) Decide when the information will be collected. This could be quite important. You want to conduct the survey at times when the persons selected for interview are most likely to be at home. For example, if on certain days each month some of them are likely to be obtaining food stamps or participating in a program for the Aging, a survey on those days is more likely to miss those persons who are more mobile, are below a certain income level, or have certain types of interests. Omitting them or interviewing substitutes could bias the survey. Another time constraint to consider is the time convenience of those interviewed. If you bother a person during his nap, meal, or favorite television program, his answers to the survey are less likely to be exact and thorough. His interest under those, or other equivalent, circumstances is more likely to be to "get it over with."

(5) Prepare your questions. This is concerned with the types of questions to be asked and how they should be asked. If you need to compile statistical data, then questions having a limited number of specific alternative answers can be used. Questions such as "how many meals do you eat each day?" or "how often each week do you have social activity away from your home?" give specific data that can be treated mathematically.

Open-ended questions, on the other hand, allow the person more flexibility in his responses. These are questions such as, "what is your opinion of the bus system in our community?" Such questions allow more complete probing of the detailed attitudes or information that may be unique to the individuals questioned. The responses to open-ended questions, however, may be difficult or impossible to compare or to treat mathematically. Both types of questions are widely used, and many questionnaires include some of both.

The other concern in preparing the questions is: how to phrase the questions to obtain the most accurate responses. Often, the response will depend on the precise phrasing of the questions. It is important to: (a) phrase the questions as clearly and simply as possible, (b) word them neutrally so that they do not suggest or imply one answer in preference to another, and (c) omit words of emotion, or words that have different meaning to different people or groups of people. A question must be understood with the same meaning by

the respondents as by those who will interpret the survey data.

(6) Prepare the questionnaire. If the survey is being mailed to those being surveyed, the questionnaire should be prepared to provide clarity, simplicity, and a desire to give complete, accurate responses. Instructions should be clear and brief. There should be no question as to which blank to check for the response. Often, a sample question and answer helps to assure clarity of an instruction. And the respondent can be motivated to answer accurately by having the earlier questions to be the simplest, most relevant and interesting to him, and arranged in a sequence that makes sense to him.

A person's attitude toward a survey often is formed very early in his attempts to answer it or even by glancing over it to see what it involves. If the survey is to be made by having surveyors ask the questions in person, the clarity of explanations and instructions is less important. However, the over-all arrangement to provide a sensible (to the respondent) flow of questions that motivate him to cooperate is very important in personal surveys. One must not forget that cooperation can be, and often is, faked. Consequently, questions and questionnaires should be designed to stimulate the most complete cooperation.

(7) Prepare the transmitter. The transmitter of a mail survey should be an attractive, motivational letter of transmittal that accompanies the survey instrument. The letter should be brief, to the point, and of keen interest to the potential respondent. It should motivate him to respond, and to respond promptly; delays lower the likelihood of a response. And it should convince him that the information will be used for an important purpose but that all information will be kept anonymous.

The transmitter of a personal-contact survey is the person who takes the survey instrument to the respondent, explains the purpose and instrument to him, asks the questions, and writes in the responses. Proper training of the surveyor is very important. Each of those steps noted above must be handled properly if the survey is to be accepted by the potential respondents and is valid when completed. The attitude shown by the surveyor through his manners, facial expressions, and voice tone--all influence the responses provided. And the meaning of a question often depends on which words receive the stress, or emphasis, when spoken or read. The training helps assure uniformity of the procedures and approach used, thus increasing the validity of the survey.

(8) Pretest the questionnaire. In designing the instrument, it is valuable to give it a pretest, or pilot trial, and to use the pretest results to make any final modifications of the instrument. A pretest is conducted using a small sample of the same group, or same type of group, as is to be surveyed using the final instrument. The pretest helps to detect questions that prompt invalid responses, wording that irritates or confuses, and questionnaire arrangement that fails to yield motivation and clarity.

(9) Make needed changes in the questionnaire. After the pretest and

before the survey, the instrument should be improved, as needed, based on the pretest. Wording of the questions, their arrangement, the instructions, the letter of transmittal, the enclosure of a pre-stamped, pre-addressed return envelope, and the training of the surveyors--are prospects for improvement based on the pretest.

(10) Take the survey. Accuracy and thoroughness are needed. Consequently, a news release or announcement where the target population will learn of it may help the people to be receptive and to cooperate. Completing the survey in a short period of time helps reduce anxiety and influence of those not yet questioned by those who have been surveyed. A survey should be made in a friendly, courteous, business-like manner.

(11) Analyze the data and procedure. After finishing the survey, the information is compiled so that statistical data can be prepared. For each question, this shows the percentage of the responses that fall in each of the categories provided for that question. On open-ended questions or less-structured questionnaires, more flexible means of compilation and comparison likely will be needed. When compiled and analyzed, the data may indicate that the instrument or procedure could have been improved even further. It may be useful to look for such possibilities, even as a learning experience, and to note potential problems and/or improvements for future use.

(12) Organize the data. Effective and efficient use of information requires that it be organized to increase its clarity, simplicity, meaning, and usefulness. Charts, tables, grids, and diagrams showing situations, comparisons, and projections can be useful to understanding. Meaningful reports interpreting the data, and showing its meaning for specific purposes can be especially useful. It is in the organization of data that the gap between availability and useability is spanned.

Useful information can be collected. However, much information is not useful, and much information could be more useful if it were more reliable and better organized. Misleading data can lead to erroneous decisions. Consequently, information collection should be carefully planned and carried out.

d. Organizing Information

The value and likely use of data hinges heavily on how it is organized. Pages of unorganized data attract only the most dedicated and patient of persons. Their use is very inefficient because considerable time is required to locate the precise information needed and to be sure that relevant data are not overlooked.

Organizing data provides some type of meaningful arrangement, structure, or selection. It does not change the meaning of data, but it does enable its meaning to be more visible. It can be compared to using colored television for viewing a colorful garden of flowers. On black and white TV there is little difference visible among the different varieties and colors, but on colored TV the shapes, components, and texture of each variety are visible because the color makes

them more distinguishable. Through organization, variations and meaning of the data become more visible.

Organized data are used not only to assist you, but also to provide a medium by which you can convey meaning to others. People like to feel, or claim, that their decisions are rational, that is, based on logical use of facts. We like others to look upon us as being rational rather than irrational, logical rather than illogical, and objective rather than subjective. Consequently, if the facts support the Aging programs and activities you propose, then one of your strongest allies can be your organized presentation of relevant facts. If your facts are properly organized, they can make it difficult, embarrassing, and unpopular for decisions to be made that contradict the facts.

EXHIBIT 5.4 shows some ways that can be used to organize data and some of the uses those modes of organization can serve. They are described in the following sections.

(1) Complete data. Availability of the complete, detailed data often is very important, either for reference or for portraying honesty. The data can be listed in an orderly sequence, with appropriate headings and subheadings, to assist locating any component information in reference. Such data can be provided as an appendix or as a supplemental document.

(2) Exception data. The most important, most relevant data are considered to be the "exception data." Segregating and displaying these data make the meaning of the data more vivid, and make possible "management by exception." Most decisions are made on the basis of the exception: deviations from normal, the extraordinary, the large magnitude.

Exception data can take many forms. Examples could include: (a) identification of persons having less than certain nutrient food consumption daily; (b) classification of persons having less than a designated minimum of social contact weekly; (c) homes having inadequate capability of temperature maintenance above a certain comfort level in winter; and (d) geographic areas having Aging shut-ins greater than a certain density level (number per square mile).

Sorting out the exception data from the total data helps those who would use the information for making decisions. The exception data then can be used more quickly and efficiently.

(3) Tables. Different people seem to prefer different modes of data organization and presentation. Perhaps a combination of methods is best under most circumstances, using tables to present the exception data and charts to depict specific points.

Tables can be organized in many ways, but generally have several columns, each labeled at the top, and many rows, each labeled at the left. Tables are especially useful to portray the following information.

EXHIBIT 5.4

SOME WAYS TO ORGANIZE DATA AND USES THEY CAN SERVE

Mode of Organization	Uses of the Mode
(1) Complete Data	Supporting information
(2) Exception Data	Relevant information
(3) Tables	Magnitude
	Comparison
	Calculation
(4) Charts	Relationship
	Variation
	Trend
(5) Grids	Structure
	Duplication
	Completeness

(a) Magnitude. Data can be listed in order of increasing or decreasing magnitude as a means of noting level of importance, urgency, or extent. By dividing all figures in a column by an integer (such as 10 or 7 or 52) or by subtracting an integer from each figure in a column, new types of exception data can be generated and portrayed to show magnitude.

(b) Comparison. Data can be compared with equivalent data of: the prior year, the nation, another state, planned levels, acceptable levels, etc. In this way, differences, change or other exceptional situations are more easily noted.

(c) Calculation. The sequence of data manipulation can be shown in tables, so that the reader can follow the logic and the data conversions. The manipulations can move across the rows or they can progress down the columns. Tables provide a convenient means to maintain calculations for future reference and for tracing accuracy of data analysis.

(4) Charts. These are data in pictorial form. A well-prepared chart sometimes is more convincing than many tables. Usually, limited amounts of data are portrayed in relatively simple, clear fashion to make a specific point or tell a specific story. Often, ambitious people include too much information, too many lines, or too many considerations on a chart, thus reducing its clarity and its ability to communicate. Charts can be in many forms, such as line charts, bar charts, pie charts, and histograms. The following are types of information especially portrayed in charts.

(a) Relationship. Correlation between two factors can be shown on scatter diagrams. As shown on EXHIBIT 5.5 (a), one of the parameters is measured on the horizontal x axis and the other is on the vertical y axis. Each point represents a plot based on its x and y values. On the example, you can see that there appears to be some relationship between the two parameters, as noted by the solid line representing an approximation to this relationship.

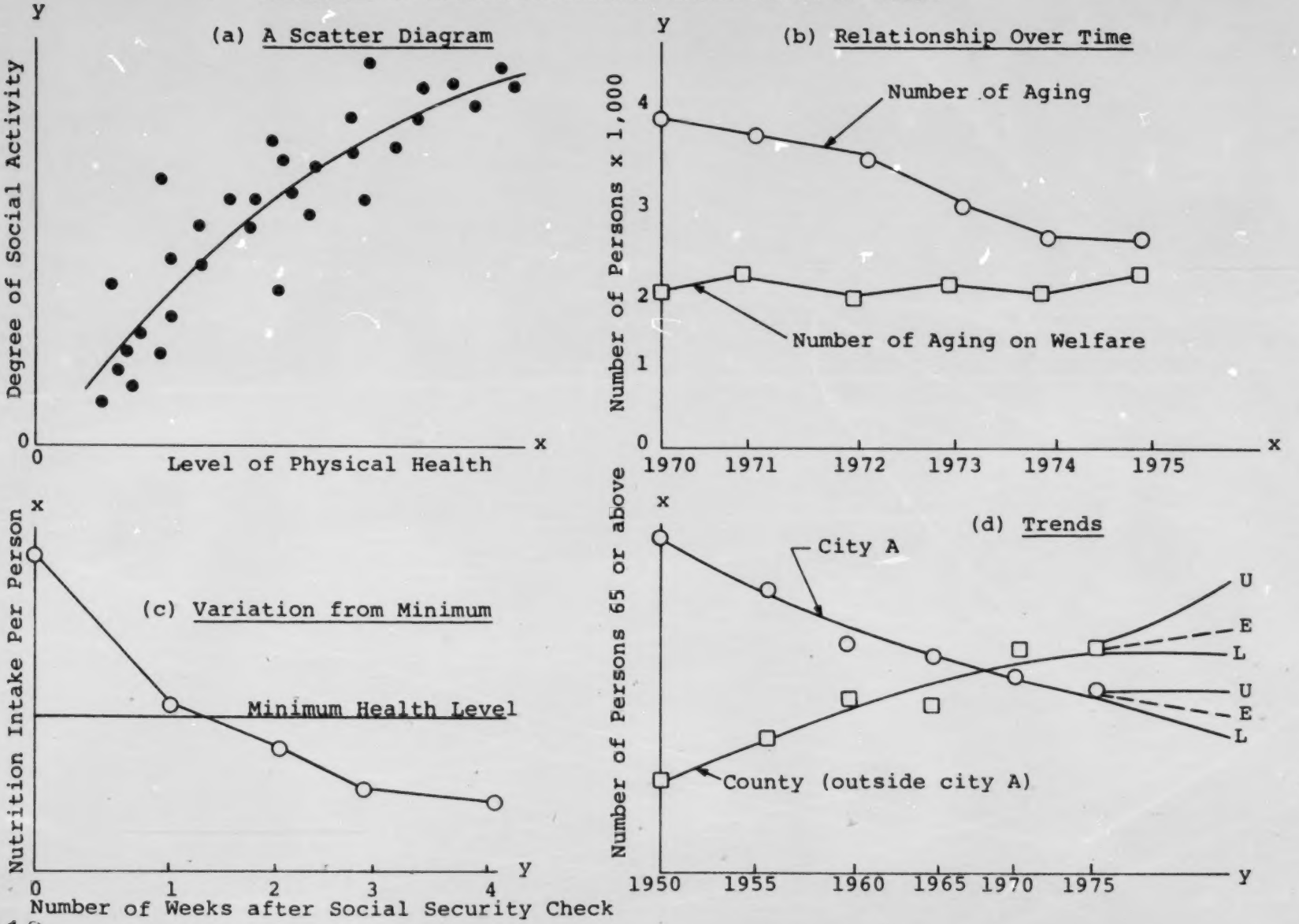
EXHIBIT 5.5 (b) shows how a plot of two or more factors on a time (horizontal x axis) scale can portray the movement of each parameter relative to the other. The example shows a plot of two factors over time: the number of Aging in the community and the number of the Aging on welfare.

(b) Variation. Movement about some designated level or fluctuation from time to time can be pictured as shown in EXHIBIT 5.5 (c). The example shows nutritional consumption of the Aging on welfare in a hypothetical community (aggregate averages) for each week following receipt of the social security checks. The points, and the lines connecting them, can be compared with the horizontal line representing a minimum health level of nutritional intake.

(c) Trend. Plotting on a time scale, as shown in EXHIBIT 5.5 (d), often allows calculation or estimation of trends. Trends are very important, as they can be projected into the future and adjusted to

EXHIBIT 5.5

EXAMPLES OF CHARTS PORTRAYING INFORMATION ON AGING



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expected future conditions. The direction of trends, and the rate of change in trends, help to suggest expansions or contractions in programs or the development of new programs. The example shows a plot of the number of persons 65 years of age or over living in city A (the declining line) and the number of them living in the same county but outside of city A (the rising line). The projections, showing "upper limits" and "lower limits" of a projected range and the "expected level," are discussed in the section on "Projecting Information."

(5) Grids. A grid (matrix) is nothing more than a special type of table. Yet, they are used only infrequently. A grid is like a crossword puzzle, with a block for information at the intersection of each row with each column of the table. In the block is placed information concerning the interaction of that row with that column. Grids are described in considerable detail in Chapter 6. The following are some of the uses of grids.

(a) Structure. The pattern of relationships among two listings of factors can be shown on a two-dimensional grid. The structure unfolds as one follows across a row or down a column and compares the information in the sequence of blocks. The total structure of activity, programs, services, resources, or other factors can be portrayed in a grid.

(b) Duplication. Grids portray duplication by showing the same or overlapping services provided by different organizations. This can be noted by examining the blocks in the grid. By picturing the total structure of services or programs, grids make duplication easier to detect.

(c) Completeness. Similarly, grids make it easy or easier to spot gaps and omissions in services and activities. By clearly showing services that are available, and comparing those with the known total needs in the area, the difference indicates gaps that need attention.

Unorganized data usually provide little direction for decisions on programs and services. By organizing the data and by emphasizing the exceptionally relevant data, meaning is more readily detected and decisions can be more accurately based on the facts.

e. Projecting Information

Planning is the structuring of future courses of action. These courses of future action cannot be prestructured without examining the future and making a reasonable effort to anticipate the future of those factors that are likely to be most relevant to the plan being made.

Although we are not able to predict the future with certainty, estimates of the future can be made with more confidence by examining past trends and present conditions. In this way, forecasts should vary from reality less than without careful study.

Some of the many factors worthwhile to anticipate for Aging

programs are: cost of living, interest rates, numbers of Aging persons, numbers of shut-ins, numbers of persons having specified needs, numbers of persons below the poverty level, availability of jobs for Aging persons, local moneys for Aging programs, and availability of federal funds for Aging programs. Of course, the specific factors that need to be projected will depend on the types of programs involved.

EXHIBIT 5.6 provides some practical guidelines for projecting information and making forecasts of the future. These are detailed in the following sections.

(1) Project trends, don't extend them. The future is not just an extension of the past. It is not necessarily accurate to estimate that the number of Aging shut-ins next year will be the same as the current level. Nor can the inflation rate be assumed to continue unchanged. Today, change is certain, and often difficult to estimate. This means change, or fluctuation, in levels, rates of change, and rates of acceleration of change. Thus, nothing can be assumed to remain unchanged. Projection into the future is based on careful analysis for each forecast made. The extent of the analysis should depend on the criticality level of the factor being forecast. It may, for example, be more important to estimate the change in costs of program operation than to accurately forecast the number of persons needing the service.

(2) Look back, look around, and look ahead. While the future is not just an extension of the past, the future is a movement of past momentum and from current levels. Consequently, more reliable forecasts of the future can be made by examining relevant trends of the past and current conditions that determine how those trends are shifted as they project into the future.

If conditions of the recent past were about the same as those relevant conditions of today, then certain factors, like rate of inflation, may be largely an extension of recent trends. But analysis of money conditions, political attitudes, and influence of the Aging might suggest major changes in availability of funds or job opportunities for the Aging.

Looking back includes examining those factors that have been influential in establishing past levels and trends. Looking around encompasses exploration of relevant current factors and comparing them with the past.

As the past moves through the present, it is affected by today's influences before it projects into the future. And when examining or forecasting, aggregates should be separated into homogeneous groups. Forecasts for each group then can be recombined to achieve aggregate forecasts. For example, the mortality rate for persons 80-90 years of age is different from that of the age group 60-70.

(3) Be realistic, not idealistic. Often we tend to forecast what we would like to see occur, what we feel should occur, or what we think could occur if certain conditions prevailed. Forecasts, however, are projections into the future to estimate what we believe will occur

EXHIBIT 5.6

GUIDELINES TO PROJECTING INFORMATION

(1) Project trends; don't extend them

(2) Look back, look around, look ahead

(3) Be realistic, not idealistic

(4) Develop a model

(5) Forecast a ranged and expected

(6) Document your assumptions

(7) Record your method

(8) Evaluate for corrective action

under the conditions that we believe will exist. Consequently, in forecasting, it is vital to be objective, to exclude personal attachments, and to look for the real situations that are likely to prevail.

Of course, the future is less predictable in the long range than in the short range. There is less opportunity to be idealistic in the short term, as there is less time to influence the momentum of present situations.

Our major errors in forecasting the short term tend to result from over-optimism, or sometimes under-optimism, that sudden changes can occur. For example, while it may be unlikely that the number of shut-ins will change suddenly, the amount of funding available for projects can be changed radically. Thus, some things are more subject to rapid, major change than are others. This, of course, enables the pessimism of insecurity or the optimism of opportunity to prevail.

(4) Develop a model. A model is something that represents something else. A photograph, a chart, a toy ship, a miniature replica--all are models in that they represent the real thing. Also, models include mathematical equations and sets of equations that represent an approximation of some system or activity. Although some models are complex and highly mathematical, many useful models are relatively simple and easy to use.

For example, a model might be a listing of factors that influence the parameter you are trying to forecast (such as number of shut-ins in your community during each of the next five years). A little more sophistication might show the mathematical relationship of these factors to each other and to the parameter. Further development could include weighting the factors based on your estimate of their relative influence on the parameter.

You can start with one of the simplest form of models: the listing of influential factors to be considered. Even this can be very useful as a guideline. As experience is gained, you will recognize many ways to improve your model so that it reflects the real situations more accurately. Models aid in recognizing influence and relationship, understanding the processes, and estimating the future.

(5) Forecast a range and expected. Usually, forecasts are projections or statements of specific, expected magnitudes or conditions. For example, the number of shut-ins aged 65 or over might be 1000 today (in a community) and projected to be 1075, 1160, 1250, 1300, and 1420 in one, two, three, four, and five years from now, respectively. But we know that uncertainty exists, and that more uncertainty exists the further into the future projections are made.

One way of recognizing this uncertainty is to project "upper limit" and "lower limit" lines as well as the "expected" line for the parameter being forecast. See EXHIBIT 5.5(d) for an example of a projection of range and expectation. This usually is a wedge that widens with the projection into time, with the "expected" line falling somewhere within the wedge. The range forecast can be very

useful, and can help you be prepared for uncertainty.

For example, next year the number of shut-ins may range between 930 to 1,110, but is expected to be 1,075. Consequently, programming to serve them could be planned to accommodate 1,110 shut-ins, and not less than 930. Budgets, facilities, and personnel planning could be developed accordingly.

(6) Document your assumptions. Much data and many projections are worthless because they were inadequately documented. The meaning and origin of data and the assumptions about current and future conditions are part of documentation essential to future usefulness of the projections. Otherwise, the projections are without their full meaning, and modifications to them as time elapses are not feasible. You cannot modify something, providing corrective adjustment, if you don't know what you are modifying. Documentation provides that information, so that periodic adjustments can be made.

(7) Record your method. Method and logic also need to be recorded for future use and modification. Forecasting is, in part, a learning development, such that future methods, logic, and bases are improvements of those used in the past. But these improvements are not feasible unless the methods used are clearly recorded. Developing new forecasts using new methods, logic, and data is considerably more costly and time-consuming than improving methods, logic, and data that have been tried and tested, and the results known.

(8) Evaluate for corrective action. If documentation and recording have been carefully made, evaluation of the results of forecasts and projections can provide the remaining information needed for corrective action. Progressive modification for improvement of the method, logic, and data base can enable increasingly accurate projections (compared with what you otherwise could achieve). Without evaluation and periodic corrective action, major error can continue indefinitely.

In practice, evaluation and corrective action are generally inadequate. There is a trend of increasing evaluation, although the corrective action lags even further behind. What value is evaluation if corrective action fails to follow?

Projections into the future are always speculative. Nevertheless, since planning requires assumptions about the future, it is better that those assumptions be developed objectively and with a sound data base.

The facts: past,present, and the anticipated future--are essential to planning. Without a sound foundation of information, a data base, planning is no more than a random walk into the future. With the proper information, planning becomes meaningful, promotes teamwork, inspires confidence, and raises the probability of achieving the needed results from the programs being planned.

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6. FINDING THE NEEDS

You cannot provide services to fill a need until you first clearly identify the need. Often, what appears to be a need is not a need at all. Real needs are difficult to spot, as what we see or hear may be quite different from what is really there. For example, what appears to be a need for recreation may actually be a need for social contact. And a need for personal security from certain dangers may be expressed by the Aging as a need to be close to other people.

Needs change. A service may be provided to fill a need that no longer exists. The need may have been important when the service was developed to provide for it, but as the need changed or disappeared, the service didn't. For example, a community might be providing recreation activities for the Aging in their community center. This may have been sufficient in earlier years, but if there has been a large rise in the number of shut-ins living alone, the community center approach now may be quite inadequate.

But what are needs? There are several confusions about this word: (1) its definition, (2) its being filled or not filled, and (3) its confusion with a "want."

Social scientists have classified man's needs into basic groups such as physiological (food, water, etc.), safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. In spotting needs to be filled, however, we usually use terms that are more identified with the means to fill these needs. Examples are education, employment, and nutrition. Whatever terms or groupings we use, we should make sure that they represent the real needs of the people to be served.

The second confusion about "need" is whether a need is a "need" if it is being filled. Surveys often are meaningless because of this confusion. A person needs food, but if his need is being filled through his own means, then there may not be a "need" for a public service to provide food for him. Furthermore, if surveyed, the person probably would not list food as one of his needs. He would consider his needs as those not currently being filled. A convenient way around this confusion is to include as "needs" all requirements of the people that are not being provided by the individual or his family.

A third difficulty in identifying needs is that we think we need everything we want. For practical purposes, and certainly to justify spending public funds, we should be aware of this confusion and identify real needs.

It is not easy to identify the real needs of the Aging in a community. In addition, there are needs of others that must be served

in order to have an effective program for the Aging. This chapter presents a concept of the "total needs" that an agency on Aging must recognize if it is to be effective. Some techniques are provided for organizing and examining these needs.

The first section shows how to use grids to organize information in a way that makes unfilled needs easy to find. The grid can be used in many ways to simplify complex information, and several of those are illustrated in this section. "Asking the right questions" is presented in the second section as a technique of really understanding the data provided by surveys and publications. The other three sections examine the total needs that must be recognized by Agencies on Aging: (1) needs of those served (clients), (2) needs of those who serve (providers), and (3) needs of the service system. Like a stool with three legs, service to all three must be in balance if the needs of the Aging are to be provided.

a. Using the Grid

The grid, or matrix, can be used to organize information about needs and services. It is like a crossword puzzle, showing the whole picture in a way that exposes how each part fits into the whole. In fact, a crossword puzzle is a grid. And the grid method of examining needs and services is as easy and as interesting as working a crossword puzzle. In both, you find the right information for each block so that the rows and the columns are correct. After this is done, a piece at a time, the whole picture makes sense.

There is no limit on applications of the grid and ways of using it to explore information. To illustrate its use, a series of four grids is used here to examine information in increasing detail.

(1) Grid 1: Listing the needs. The first grid (see EXHIBIT 6.1) lists areas of need across the top and a simple level of importance down the left. In each block, you list the detailed needs according to the level of importance of each. For example, in the top block in the column under "Nutrition" should be listed those nutrition needs you consider to be of highest importance. In fact, an easier approach is to merely list the detailed needs under each column, then give each item a level of importance, and then reshuffle them to place all with highest importance in the top block, etc.

When you have done this, you have a grid that: (1) lists the important needs of the aging, (2) groups them under major areas of need, and (3) groups them according to their importance to the aging.

EXHIBIT 6.1 is only an illustration. The Areas of Need can be expanded to cover the full range of needs of the Aging. Also, the detailed needs shown under each need area are examples; many more could be added.

There are several ways to refine this grid. First, the descriptions of the relative importance of need can be made more precise. "Highest importance" for level 1 could become "critical to physical

EXHIBIT 6.1

GRID LISTING OF NEEDS OF THE AGING

Relative Importance of Need	Needs of the Aging			
	Nutrition	Health	Recreation	Protection
1. Highest Importance	Balanced meals	Basic treatment Emergency contact	Social activity Reading	Basic security Emergency contact
2. Middle Importance	Nutrition education Tasty food Social contact	Health education Preventive care	Creative activity Collecting activity Nature activity	Security training Facilities inspection
3. Lowest Importance	Attractive food Pleasant environment Changing environment	Social contact Happy environment	Travel	Social contact Preferred environment

Note: All information is hypothetical, for illustration only.

and mental health"; level 2 could be "necessary for moderate happiness"; and level 3 could be "needed for full health and happiness." This is only a step toward precision. Second, the major categories of need could be re-examined for completeness, clarity, and lack of duplication. Finally, the detailed need under each category could be re-examined for completeness, clarity, lack of duplication, and accuracy of their assignments to levels of importance.

Having grouped the needs by level of importance, it now becomes possible to select only part of the needs (those in the highest level of importance) for attention in the near future. Attention to less vital needs could be included in a plan for later periods.

(2) Grid 2: Agency services vs. needs. This grid (see EXHIBIT 6.2) lists major areas of need across the top and agencies (service organizations) down the left. In the grid blocks are the specific services provided by each agency to fill the needs listed at the top.

The purpose of this grid is to provide a total picture of services currently available to help fill the needs. This grid shows only the major programs and categories of services, so that complete coverage is presented for a community or geographical area. The columns indicate those areas of need receiving most attention and those being neglected. The rows show the focus or emphasis of each service organization. Placing dates by each service indicating when that service or program began makes it easy to see the expansion trend of each agency.

Obviously, there is need for more detail than this grid can show. Too much detail on the grid would make it difficult to interpret. Consequently, this is accomplished in Grid 3 by expanding one column of Grid 2.

(3) Grid 3: Agency services in recreation. Here we take one column from Grid 2 and show the detailed components of that need as shown in Grid 1. In EXHIBIT 6.3 we use "recreation" as the example, and list four of the components of recreation from EXHIBIT 6.1.

Each column shows all of the recreation services provided for that type of recreation need. Each row shows the types of recreation services provided by one provider organization.

Although this gives much more detail, use of a coding system can expand the information in each block, thus making it more complete and useful. The codes shown in EXHIBIT 6.3 provide examples for using a coding system. The restriction code indicates whether the service or activity is restricted to members of the organization or to persons over a certain age level. The opportunity code indicates whether some type of training is available and if leadership by the Aging is invited. The availability code indicates when a program is open only to men or women, is available to shut-ins, and whether the activity is available during the day, night, or both.

An examination of EXHIBIT 6.3 shows a number of gaps in the services needed to provide for the needs of the Aging. The most

EXHIBIT 6.2

GRID OF AGENCY SERVICES VS. NEEDS OF THE AGING

Service Organizations	Needs of the Aging			
	Nutrition	Health	Recreation	Protection
AARP Chapter	none	Medical insurance Drugs at low cost	Group activities Travel	Daily phone calls
Churches	Christmas baskets 3--Lunch to shut-ins	none	Group games Church libraries	none
City Library	Books & magazines	Books & magazines	Books & magazines	Books & magazines
Recreation Dept.	none	Active games Arts & crafts	Playground Arts & crafts	none

Note: All information is hypothetical, for illustration only.

EXHIBIT 6.3

GRID OF AGENCY SERVICES IN RECREATION FOR THE AGING

Service Organizations	Recreation Needs of the Aging			
	Social Activity	Reading	Creative Activity	Collecting Activity
AARP Chapter	Monthly meetings Group trips R-A-D-L	Monthly magazine S	none	none
Churches	Group games Group functions R-L-N	Books in library Religious readings R-D	none	none
Health Dept.	none	none	none	none
City Library	none	Books Magazines L	Books D, N	Books D, N
Recreation Dept.	Playground Sports: 3,5,6 Picnic tables D-L	none	Arts & Crafts: 1,2,5,6,8	none

Restriction:

R = Members only
A = Aging only

Availability:

M = Men only
W = Women only
S = Shut-ins
D = Day
N = Night

Opportunity:

T = Training
L = Leadership

Note: All information is hypothetical, for illustration only.

6-6

obvious gap is the complete absence of programming available to the shut-ins, except for the monthly magazine of the AARP that can reach them through the mails. Even an extension of current activity, however, could provide such services to the shut-ins as: (1) regular social visits, including games, by members of AARP and the churches; (2) provision of reading materials by churches and the city library; and (3) arts and crafts instruction and delivered materials by the recreation department. Furthermore, several of the organizations could provide volunteers to assist able-bodied shut-ins in going out to some of the programs.

Other gaps and opportunities become evident by inspecting EXHIBIT 6.3: (1) social activity is available primarily to organization members; (2) the city library could provide social activity through discussion (of books, news, world affairs, etc.) groups; (3) recreation facilities, inside and outside, could be used for an expanded, balanced range of activities for both small and large groups; (4) personalized reading assistance, specialized reading materials (magazines on hobbies, creative activity, etc.), displays and groupings of special-interest materials, lectures and discussion groups, and other programs are feasible by the city library; (5) the AARP chapter and the churches could provide creative activities not provided by the recreation department (unlisted numbers), and (6) the complete absence of activity on countless collections-type hobbies could be developed or assisted by four of the five organizations.

Through this type of analysis, unfilled needs can be identified and various possible services to fill these needs can be considered. In many cases, there may be several different new services (or extensions of existing services) from different organizations that can fill a specific unfilled need. In such cases, other factors can be considered, such as: Who has the interest? Where are the available resources? Which could provide more effective and more efficient service to fill the need?

(4) Grid 4: Facilitating services vs. needs. A different, but useful, grid considers the facilitating services that may not fill a need directly but which are necessary for the need to be filled. For example, transportation may be necessary for the Aging to purchase groceries, visit the doctor, and participate in social activity.

An example of this type grid is shown in EXHIBIT 6.4. The facilitating services are listed on the left and the recreation needs of the Aging are listed across the top. In the blocks are listed the specific services that each facilitating service provides to help make available the listed needs of the Aging.

In the exhibit, it is obvious that the facilitating services range from reasonably good transportation services to no service follow-up at all. Escort assistance is especially limited and the out-reach program appears to make contacts, gather survey data, and nothing more. In this way, this grid provides a means to spot gaps in the facilitating services that are essential for the Aging to make use of the services they need and want.

EXHIBIT 6.4

GRID OF FACILITATING SERVICES VS. NEEDS IN RECREATION

Facilitating Services	Recreation Needs of the Aging			
	Social Activity	Reading	Creative Activity	Collecting Activity
Information and Referral	none	Counsel and refer	Counsel and refer	Counsel and refer
Transportation	Aging to activities	Aging to library Aging to church Books to shut-ins	Aging to activities Trainer to aging Materials to aging	Aging to activities
Escort Assistance	To church functions	none	none	none
Outreach	Contact and survey	Contact and survey	none	none
Service Follow-up	none	none	none	none

Note: All information is hypothetical, for illustration only.

EXHIBIT 6.5

EXAMPLES OF OTHER GRIDS FOR ANALYZING NEEDS OF THE AGING

Listed Down the Left	Listed in the Blocks	Listed Across the Top
(a) Provider programs	(a) Services provided	(a) Needs of the aging
(b) Provider agencies	(b) Facilitating services	(b) Needs of the aging
(c) Criticality of need	(c) Description of need	(c) Needs of the aging
(d) Provider agencies	(d) Barriers and limitations	(d) Needs of the Aging
(e) Provider programs	(e) Ways of reinforcement	(e) Provider programs
(f) Basic needs (Maslow)	(f) Component relationship	(f) Needs of the aging
(g) Specific programs	(g) Activities provided	(g) Needs of the aging

(5) Other types of grids. The grid is a very serviceable instrument. Grids can be used to organize information in different ways that can assist better understanding and use of data in the planning process. As a planning process reaches higher levels of success and competency, greater detail can be made in the grid analyses in order to fill more of the remaining opportunities.

EXHIBIT 6.5 lists eight more grids available to analyze services and needs. Others could be listed, and still others can be developed to serve specialized situations. The grid has endless possibilities.

b. Uncovering the Real Needs

Statistics can be misleading, and usually they show only part of the needed information. "Asking the right questions" is presented here as a method of gaining additional insight into the actual situation represented by data from surveys and publications.

Asking questions cannot replace the analysis of data. Data can lead the way to the right questions. And questions can point to need for more data. Through questioning, statistics can be verified, clarified, or nullified. After all, we could be looking at the wrong statistics or at the right statistics in a wrong way. Consequently, asking questions is essential to our confidence in data and to our correct use of them.

The Aging administrator needs insight that data often cannot supply. The deepest concerns or feelings of people and how those concerns relate to them as individuals are as important as good statistics. Also, data rarely can express the complexities of individual situations to enable development of programs that effectively meet the Aging needs. For example, there may be ten factors that could prevent a person from participating in a certain program, any one of which, unresolved, could be an effective barrier. And some of the factors could be too personal or too vague to be expressed or recorded for the record in surveys.

What people think is important. In fact, often it is more important than the facts. We don't change our thinking easily, no matter what the "facts" show. Asking the right questions and both hearing and seeing the responses, especially in the Agings' own community, can be quite revealing.

People need to be needed. Asking them questions gives them a chance to participate and to see themselves in the plan that may affect them. Then when the plan is activated, it is their program, something that they wanted and requested.

A final benefit of asking the right questions is that barriers often crumble on face-to-face contact. If a person cares enough to make a visit, then grudges, biases, and excuses frequently melt under the sunshine of friendship. Surveys show only what the people say with words, but the full truth and meaning of one's thinking are expressed through facial expressions, body motions, tone of speaking,

sweat glands, and other means that supplement the words of communication. Personal conversation also allows back and forth interchange that is a type of building-block approach to searching for information. One expression can reveal insights on which further searching questions can be based.

There are three phases of a thorough approach to asking the right questions during an informal visit: preparation, questioning, and follow-up. These are detailed in EXHIBIT 6.6.

(1) Phase 1: Preparation

(a) Know who to ask. You may want to question a randomly-selected group of persons. However, to gain insight into special problems or situations, persons selected for their objectivity and knowledge might be questioned. These could include selected Aging, politicians, community leaders, relatives of the Aging, or others with special knowledge.

(b) Know something of him. Some insight into the interests, biases, openness, and likely communications barriers of the person to be visited are invaluable to know in advance. These help to provide an easy conversation, know where and how to probe, and how to interpret the answers and comments.

(c) Put him at ease. Tension is no setting for gaining understanding. Consequently, first using conversation about his interests, family, or setting can prepare a productive setting.

(d) Align your thinking. It is always more comfortable to talk about something that "I" want to talk about. Such questioning, therefore, should first probe for topics of special interest to the person being questioned. That helps him to know that you really are interested in his interests, and you learn his relative scale of concerns.

(e) Avoid miscommunication. A word or phrase may mean one thing to the Aging person and something else to you. For various reasons, words that are commonplace to one person may have no meaning to another. It is the thoughts that are important. Words often fail to communicate the real and full meaning of one's thinking. Also, because some persons are more expressive than others, the amount of talk should not be used as a gage of one's feelings or needs.

(2) Phase 2: Questioning

(a) Have a reason. It is not enough to be curious or to have a hollow excuse. It is important that questioning be based on a need to know, and that need must be important to the person being questioned. Your reason for questioning should be explained clearly, with opportunity provided for questions about unclear points. Then, the interview is most likely to produce valid and thorough information.

EXHIBIT 6.6

UNCOVERING THE REAL NEEDS

Phase 1: Preparation

(a) Know who to ask
(b) Know something of him
(c) Put him at ease
(d) Align your thinking
(e) Avoid miscommunication

Phase 2: Questioning

(a) Have a reason
(b) Be genuinely interested
(c) Ask leading questions
(d) Listen carefully and obviously
(e) Watch your voice tone and inflection
(f) Ask searching questions
(g) Be wary

Phase 3: Follow-up

(a) Assure respondent his help is important
(b) Reflect on your session

(b) Be genuinely interested. Superficiality is easy to detect and can result in superficial answers. Being genuine, showing interest in the individual and his concerns, his responses, his family--can yield a flow of revealing information.

(c) Ask leading questions. They can be followed by specific questions on essential details if needed. Questions that can be answered with "yes" or "no" or with a few words of specific facts tend to give pieces of information, but only pieces.

(d) Listen carefully and obviously. Don't interrupt. Interruption is a clear signal of not listening, frequently is considered to be a lack of courtesy, and often causes a clamming up of the person being interrupted.

(e) Watch your voice tone and inflection. These and your eyes can signal interest or boredom, and can indicate if you really care. A person responds to all that he receives through his senses, not just to the specific questions he is asked. His response is to the question and the questioner.

(f) Ask searching questions. Avoid implying the answer expected, otherwise you may receive only the answer you expect, regardless of validity. Questions regarding his needs, his experiences with current or past program services, his insight into why something doesn't work--these and other such questions can search out a wealth of understanding.

(g) Be wary. It is easy to misunderstand or to be misled. Sometimes deception or honest ignorance are difficult to detect. And being in print does not assure accuracy. It is safer to compare, test, and sift information in the process of drawing conclusions.

(3) Phase 3: Follow-up

(a) Assure respondent that his help is important. This can be emphasized at both the beginning and end of the conversation. A genuine expression of appreciation helps also.

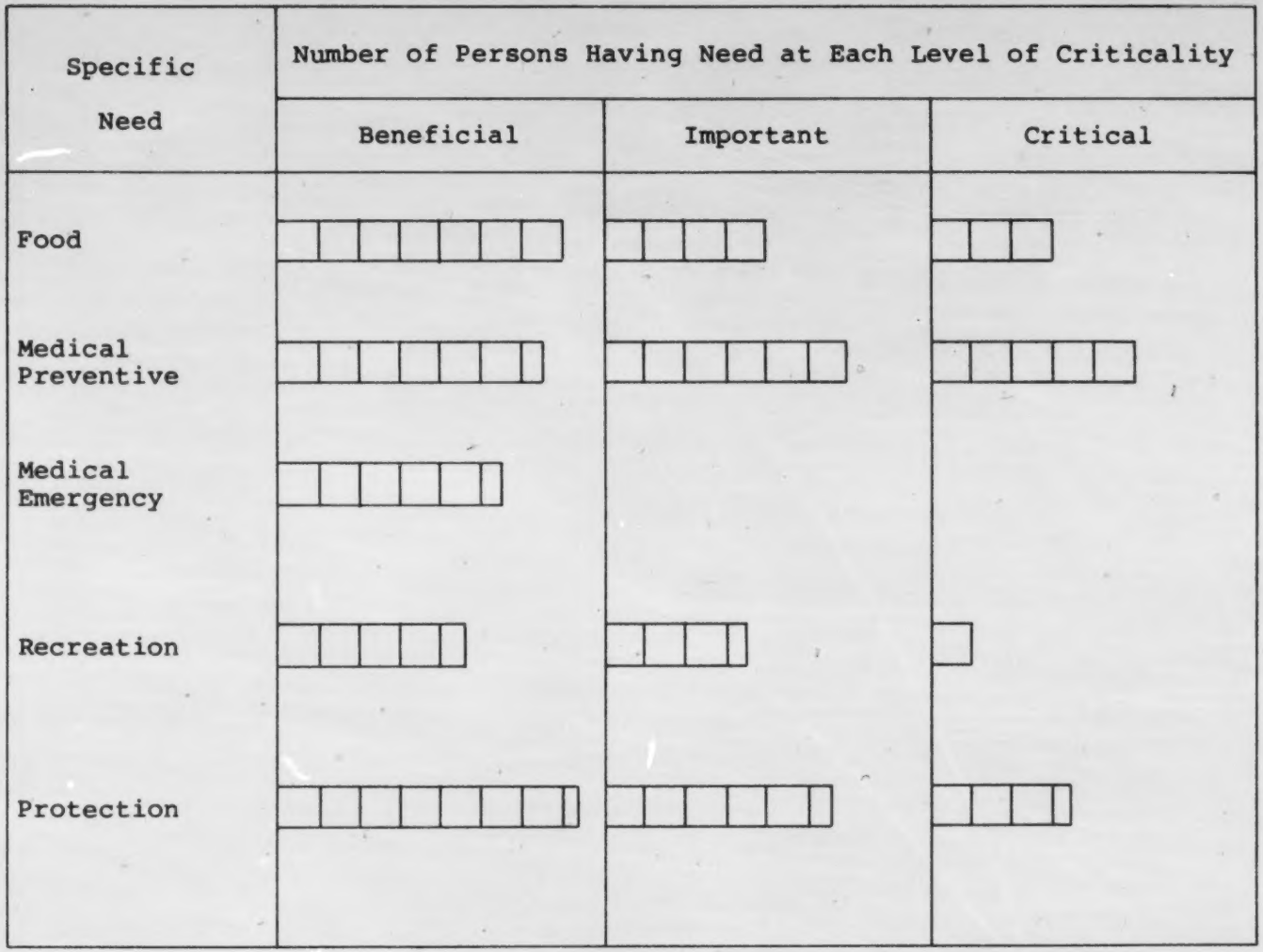
(b) Reflect on your session. This helps to sift the wheat from the chaff. It helps to place information in proper perspective. And it shows up fallacies and gaps as well as truths and reinforcement. Reflection points the direction of further need for information.

c. Profiling the Client Needs

Public organizations often try to fill a need completely while some other needs, although critical to mental and physical health, remain untouched. We get into a rut of attempting to do the best we can in what we are doing, without realizing that part of what we are doing is not nearly so vital to the Aging as what we are not doing.

EXHIBIT 6.7

PROFILE CHART OF AGING NEEDS



Note: (1) Each full division (square) represents 100 people.
(2) All information is hypothetical, for illustration only.

In EXHIBIT 6.1, each specific need was placed in a grid box corresponding to the relative importance of that need. But we must realize that each need has some components that are more critical than others. For example, the need for food to prevent physical and mental degeneration is critical, whereas the need for extra quantity, quality, and balance of food may be beneficial or important, but not critical to health.

This is shown in EXHIBIT 6.7 where each need is subdivided into levels of satisfaction based on criticality. As a hypothetical example, the exhibit shows about 250 persons with critical need for food, about 500 persons with important needs, and about 700 persons with need that would benefit from more food of the right types. The 700 persons includes the 500, and the 500 includes the 250. When the critical needs for food for the 250 persons are met, those same 250 remain in the 500 and 700 groups that could benefit from more and better food.

In EXHIBIT 6.7, the critical needs are obvious, and the numbers of persons having each critical need are shown by the lengths of the bars. From the examples in the chart, we can see that critical preventive medical services to 500 persons normally would take priority over serving the important food needs of 400 or the beneficial medical emergency needs of 550.

The profile technique can be used to explore the components of each specific need. For example, "food" could be subdivided into several components, then listing and profiling them on a separate chart.

By profiling the needs of the Aging, it necomes possible to distinguish between those needs requiring immediate attention and those which can be delayed without serious consequences.

d. Considering Those Who Serve

Services are provided by people grouped in organizations. Since agencies on Aging work largely with and through other agencies and organizations, the most visible bottleneck to effective program development often is the resistance of the other agencies.

It is natural to assume that those in the other organizations are obstinate, short-sighted, and in a comfortable rut. They probably are all of them, and more. And they should be. If they have been providing valuable services, should they not defend their activity, resisting the risks associated with the uncertainties of change. This is so especially if the change is likely to be under the control of others. And is not a rut essential for developing efficiency in our work. The learning curve implies this. In less biased language, we refer to ruts as routines, procedures, policies, and guidelines. Yes, ruts are essential to provide a workable system even in a dynamic economy.

Even if we can accept ruts and resistance to change as natural, what means can be used to cause changes to occur? The means

recommended here is through recognition of the needs of the other organizations and their people and by working cooperatively to serve the needs of the Aging while serving the needs of those who serve. Other means are available: pressure, threats, diverting their support funds, and outright sabotage. These are not promoted or discussed in this Manual. In fact, they often cause results that are unexpected and disasterous. However, changes in the laws to modify structure, authority, and financial support are essential to provide the legal authority for certain types of basic changes.

This Manual focuses on developments that can be made by direct relationships with other agencies and organizations. This places a challenge on the change agent, the Aging agency, to recognize the needs of those who serve and to find ways to harmonize their needs with those of the Aging you want them to serve, or serve better.

The following are some of the needs of those who serve (provider agencies and agents). These needs, if recognized and structured into the development of planned change, can lead to cooperation and teamwork. If not properly taken into account, these needs can generate subtle repercussions that can block immense efforts for program development. Their needs and a suggested approach to them are listed in EXHIBIT 6.8.

(1) Their needs

(a) Job security. If a person's job and income are threatened, or even if they think that it might be threatened, the reaction likely will be to dig in, muster reinforcement, and protect the status quo.

(b) Organization identity. We want to be accepted, and we want to be identified with an organization that is accepted. A threat to an organization is a threat to those associated with it. We can identify easier and with more certainty with what we have than with what we might have.

(c) Personal prestige. Each of us wants to be somebody. Even though we may not be satisfied with the existing situation, we often are reluctant to gamble our present status and prestige even if a higher degree of success and prestige might result.

(d) Professional opportunity. We want job security and opportunity. If a person is satisfied with his opportunity, as he sees it, in his organization, then he may resist changes that he thinks might threaten that opportunity.

(2) Your approach. While the above needs of service agencies and agents can block intense effort and fine logic, they do yield to means that create confidence instead of fear and that are participative and considerate instead of autocratic. The following are some means of achieving this approach.

(a) Become personally acquainted first. Work together in small ways before starting more critical tasks.

EXHIBIT 6.8

CONSIDERING THOSE WHO SERVE

(1) Their Needs

(a) Job security

(b) Organization identity

(c) Personal prestige

(d) Professional opportunity

(2) Your Approach

(a) Become personally acquainted first

(b) Listen to their interests and ideas

(c) Start with their situation

(d) Plan together

(e) Move slowly in small steps

(f) Plan way ahead

(g) Be wary of master plans

(b) Learn their interests and ideas. Learn their aspirations, and their ideas--before suggesting anything. Listen. Ask questions.

(c) Start with their situation. Suggest moves (at least at first) that are in line with interests they have expressed.

(d) Plan together. Participation reduces fear of the unknown. If possible, each move should be their idea or based on their ideas.

(e) Move slowly in small steps. Plan and take one or two small steps at a time. Have patience. Moving in the right direction is more important than the speed of movement.

(f) Plan way ahead. This is for you, not them. Looking far ahead can arouse fears, anxiety, and distrust. You must think ahead in order to assure that short-range developments are in the direction of long-term needs.

(g) Be wary of master plans. They usually are formed, filed and forgotten. They incite such fears that great mounds of (verbal) dirt are heaped on them to assure their permanent burial. The planning process, not the plan, is what achieves lasting results. If the planning is continuous and is leading the activity, good results should follow. Current operational plans, with some projections, are essential to progress. Master plans often prevent progress.

The above methods to planning and cooperation are more likely to achieve the results you are seeking. More forceful, autocratic means may achieve results more quickly, but they also are likely to perish more quickly.

e. Working in the System

The difference between a classroom setting and the world of reality is a host of influential factors that must be lived with and worked with. They are complexities that frustrate or challenge, determine failure or success, and yield only to very careful planning.

This section explores some of the realities of organized systems, in this case agencies on Aging. You might consider these as needs of the system. By the term "system" we are not referring to the closed system of an Aging agency. Instead, we are referring to the suprasystem, the whole environment of influence, that interacts with the agency on Aging. See EXHIBIT 6.9.

(1) Constraints from above. These are requirements from up the organization: the state, regional, or national level. Often, they appear to be a hindrance rather than a help, and they may consume large amounts of time that you would rather allocate elsewhere.

To tolerate this situation, one must recognize two everpresent characteristics of organized activity. First, organization multiplies the results that otherwise could be obtained, but to do this

EXHIBIT 6.9

WORKING IN THE SYSTEM

Problems	Solutions
(1) Constraints from above	
(a) Red tape	(a) Live with it
(b) Required projects	(b) Include them
(c) Sudden changes	(c) Plan flexibility
(2) Funding foibles	
(a) Short-term funding	(a) Use it wisely
(b) Specified allocation	(b) Decide carefully
(c) Threat of cutoff	(c) Be prepared
(3) Political realities	
(a) Illogical priorities	(a) Understand them
(b) Need for visibility	(b) Provide visibility
(c) Influence of influence	(c) Muster influence
(4) Community momentum	
(a) Group biases	(a) Recognize them
(b) Positions for prestige	(b) Provide recognition
(c) Everybody is nobody	(c) Develop structure
(5) Aging apathy	
(a) Lack of understanding	(a) Communicate
(b) Fear of change	(b) Give security
(c) The comfortable rut	(c) Be patient

it must constrain, limit, and unify to at least some degree. The opposite of organization is anarchy, which is destructive rather than constructive. Second, there may be sound reasons up the ladder for what they do or demand. They may not have the detailed insights that you do, but they have information, insights, and pressures that are not available at the lower levels. And they may not communicate the "why," or there may be reasons that they should not reveal. Three of these common constraints are the following:

(a) Red tape. Live with it. Primarily red tape is a means of bureaucratic communication. It provides statistics for planning, control, and corrective action. And it is the basis of executive action by the exception principle.

(b) Required projects. Include them. If they are important, they may continue. If not, they likely will quickly fade away. They may be somebody's experiment, based on newly-available information, or originate from an expected widespread problem. You may never know. So, why not make the best of them.

(c) Sudden changes. Plan flexibility. By planning slack or easily redirected activity into the total program, sudden changes in directives can be accommodated. Unexpected turn of events is a fact of life. Sometimes these changes are vital, timely, and productive. Having some reserve resources (time, funds, facilities) or flexibilities in readjusting programs makes these sudden changes easier to work into your programming.

(2) Funding foibles. Constraints and weaknesses also are common in funding resources. We never have as much money as we want or with an assurance of continued flow and growth that most organizations need for planning. Since money is the primary resource for purchasing other resources, this problem can affect the whole organization and its programs. Financial uncertainties are a fact of life, so we do our best within these limitations. Three common funding foibles are discussed.

(a) Short-term funding. Use it wisely. Often, allocations are for short, limited periods, perhaps for good reasons. Strategic planning, priorities planning, and multiplier planning are factors to consider in using short-term funds. How can these funds be used to make a major gain in public awareness, program visibility, or cooperation by strategic agencies? How can such funds make a breakthrough for a high priority need, perhaps requiring less funding after becoming operational: How can the funds be allocated such that they will stimulate or generate a flow of funds from other sources? These are some of the questions to ask in allocating short-term funds into a long-term program.

(b) Specified allocation. Decide carefully. You may not want it. Or, you may, especially if it can serve needs not otherwise served and without sacrificing service to higher levels of need. Will the allocation for an unplanned, specified allocation dilute and weaken your program of services to the Aging, or strengthen it?

Can the limited asset be used effectively? There are occasions when funds should be rejected; but there are other times when flexibility and creativity can improve the attractiveness of such funds.

(c) Threat of cutoff. Be prepared. Perhaps no one is ever prepared for a cutoff or severe reduction in funds. Many organizations develop contingency plans just in case the unexpected occurs. Such plans answer the question, "what if." They specify what programs might be dropped or how they might be altered to lower their funding without cutting services to critical needs; they may include sources of emergency funds. Contingency plans, even if very rough and informal, do provide an advanced starting point for final analysis and action when need for quick action arises.

(3) Political realities. When programs and funds are authorized or supported through the political processes, then an understanding of those processes helps to assure such support. As with other factors, only very limited exploration of several key factors is possible here. But this can initiate a sensitivity and perhaps point toward a more comfortable way of working with them.

(a) Illogical priorities. Understand them. On whose logic are they illogical, yours or theirs? Logic depends on the point of observation. There may be sound reasons for the priorities allocated by politicians. On the other hand, the logic may be based on inadequate information, limited analysis of the facts, lack of communication, external pressures, or other factors that you can change--if you understand the situation.

(b) Need for visibility. Provide visibility. We all recognize the need for politicians to favorably impress their constituents while in office, if they want to continue in office or be elected to a higher office. Certainly concrete, busses, and lunches are more visible than health care, nutrition education, and information and referral. And they are all more visible than the endless process of planning. But if you create the visibility, the public awareness and support for the less visible, and determine from the politicians what sort of visibility they need from the less-tangible programs, you probably can provide it. It takes more effort, more creativity, more planning to produce visibility on these types of services. But if they are high priority services, is it not worth the effort? If a few others (newspapers, TV, civic clubs, etc.) can be convinced of the values, they can help generate more visibility.

(c) Influence of influence. Muster influence. Why not? Is the program not worth it? Influence is both direct and subtle, and is found at the polls and in the coffee shop. Don't we all listen more carefully to those we respect, and are we not influenced more by some than others? If your "product" is worth selling (or buying), why not "sell" it to those who, in turn, can reinforce your efforts to get it accepted and funded.

(4) Community momentum. There are many characteristics of people and groups of people that often frustrate the efforts of agencies on

Aging in getting things done through other people. The community seems to have a type of momentum, like a boulder rolling down a mountain, that makes change in its direction or its ways extremely difficult. This momentum includes the ways people act and react, how they think, and what they do. These are characteristics of people and groups of people in action.

Three such characteristics are discussed here. There are many others. An agency on Aging can drain its energies by trying to change the system, or it can focus on its direct responsibilities within the system.

(a) Group biases. Recognize them. Work around them. Often they will diminish or disappear for lack of attention. Why not let people, especially volunteers, work in a manner that is suitable to them, if this is productive. If certain volunteers are willing to work with certain people, or during certain hours, or in certain work, why not let them. Satisfaction often produces an attitude that opens the door to change.

(b) Positions for prestige. Provide recognition. Many organizations encourage their officials to hold community responsibilities that give prestige and recognition. Sometimes the title and news release are all they want; certainly not work or responsibility. This can be a serious problem. But two can play this game, too. Your agency or one of its programs may need the visible support of an influential person--and that's all. So, why not appreciate that different people volunteer their time or money for different reasons. If you know the person, his need, his motive, and you align him with a responsibility that serves his needs, then a mutually beneficial association can occur. Of course, this goes for employees, too. Match the man and the job, and provide the recognition.

(c) Everybody is nobody. Develop structure. Sometimes agencies open their doors to everybody that wants to help, and nobody shows up. Although there can be power in numbers, there also can be chaos--unless they are the right numbers and they are fitted into an operational structure. Thus, why not determine the kinds of persons needed to do the jobs, and go after them. But before doing so, have the organization, programs, or activities sufficiently structured that you can show a person the need for him and his opportunity in the organization.

(5) Aging apathy. Is there lack of interest by the Aging in some of the programs developed to serve them? There may be good reasons why they don't participate. Some questioning and listening may provide some insight.

Or, they may be wary because they have been deceived or swindled many times during their lives. They may have been high pressured into buying things they didn't need or talked into doing things they really didn't want to do.

Now, the Aging are older, wiser, and more cautious. No longer do they feel compelled to "belong." Obligations to the employer, the

community, and the family may have dwindled. The clock can no longer dictate every movement. Haven't you wished at times that you could break loose from these perpetual obligations? Then perhaps you can sympathize with the Aging when they fail to respond to programs and services.

Now, with this awareness, let's look at three of the problems that appear as Aging apathy:

(a) Lack of understanding. Communicate--in person--personably. Or even better, let a trusted friend or relative of the Aging person communicate for you or with you. Often, a formidable wall of distrust must be crumbled before he can be convinced to do anything. Then communicate, simply, slowly, and with few words. Listen. He may be trying to tell you why he can't--or thinks he can't How can you squelch his fears if you don't hear them? Undoubtedly, this is the first step on the road to participation.

(b) Fear of change. Give security. When you leave, his mind wanders. He thinks of a hundred reasons why he should not follow through. Any one of these reasons is sufficient to prevent his trying your program. So, what can you do? Try providing security, in any of several forms. Arrange for one of his friends to bring him (or to be involved in some way, assuring security); get several of the Aging together, preferably a group of Aging that know each other; or have a trusted friend to talk with him again in private just before the first activity date.

(c) The comfortable rut. Be patient--but not naive or apathetic. Just when you breathe the air of success, even after a series of successful events, the attendance dwindles, excuses flow, and the program folds. Why? Many programs succeed until the newness wears off--then perish. There can be many reasons, but two are not uncommon. (1) Many programs are exciting and attractive at first, but lose their luster with time. As the luster vanishes, the remaining attractiveness is not sufficient to offset the difficulties of participation (transportation, protection, etc.). (2) Many people will participate in an activity for a short period to meet their obligation, and then settle back into the comfortable rut. The solution? Patience with the people, and careful follow-up and corrective action on the program. The success of a program cannot be gaged by its early participation. It's when the glamor wears off, and the tendency to revert to routine becomes irresistible. But, if you maintain careful communication with the participants, obtain their reactions, provide corrective action, involve the Aging in the program, and keep it going successfully long enough to establish a new and comfortable rut, then you're over the hump.

These problems and solutions do not exhaust the characteristics and needs of organized systems. They are, however, some of those most relevant to agencies on Aging by providing insight into the way systems operate and some approaches to getting things done through them.

It is sometimes said that when you have defined the problem, you are half way to its solution. Similarly with needs. If we can identify the real needs of the Aging, our programs can be pointed in the right direction. And if we understand the needs of those who serve and the needs of service systems, then these programs are likely to move along the road to success: diminishing the gap between the needs of the Aging and their fulfillment.

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7. CHOOSING YOUR OBJECTIVES

Should you determine your resources and then specify objectives that can be achieved with those resources? Or, should you set your objectives and then attempt to find resources to achieve them?

Neither of these approaches is entirely satisfactory for agencies on Aging, although both have elements of excellence and limitation. The approach used in the planning process detailed in this Manual combines the best elements of the two extreme methods noted above.

Objectives should first be established based on the needs to be served. Then they should be revised to be realistic based on the resources available.

Establishing a set of ideal objectives provides a direction for planning and serves as a means for continuous awareness of the gap between "what is" and "what might be." If resources are considered at this point, they tend to limit the full recognition of needs and the forms of services that could provide for them. The structure of ideal objectives that are prepared at this point should be kept for periodic reference and updating.

After preparation of ideal objectives, an inventory of available resources is needed. Then it is possible to merge the two sets of information. A set of realistic objectives can be prepared based on efficient use of available resources required to achieve these objectives.

The set of ideal objectives often can be used to obtain resources that otherwise would not have been available. Consequently, what can properly be included in the realistic objectives may be based, in part, on how effectively the ideal objectives may be used to attract resources.

The set of realistic objectives, of course, must be directed toward the filling of the needs of the Aging. The benefits achieved for the Aging are of major importance. Nevertheless, instant achievement is unrealistic, so realistic objectives need to be structured over a period of years, recognizing both priorities and timing that would provide the maximum provision for the needs of the Aging.

This chapter concentrates on objectives, and considers those factors that need attention in structuring them. Resources are examined in the next chapter.

a. Spotting the Critical

Vilfredo Pareto, an Italian economist and sociologist at the turn of this century, showed that the distribution of wealth followed a type

of declining curve. He observed that a few people had a lot of wealth and a lot of people had little wealth. The distribution curve that expresses his observations also is applicable to the solution of problems.

The Pareto Principle of income distribution can be used to distinguish the "vital few" from the "trivial many." EXHIBIT 7.1 illustrates this principle. In EXHIBIT 7.1, it can be seen that there are 960 persons with Need no. 1, 650 persons with Need no. 2, etc. The chart is drawn with the most frequent need on the left (no. 1), the next most frequent need shown second, and continuing to the right with the declining frequency of needs.

This is the typical shape of a Pareto curve. Here it can be seen that 4 or 5 needs are unfilled for hundreds of persons, whereas there are many needs (perhaps a hundred or more) that are unfilled for a small number of people. The right edge of EXHIBIT 7.1 could be extended much further to include all needs.

Often, it is strategic and/or economic to first develop services that will benefit as many people as possible. The visibility may be greater, success can make other successes more feasible, and often the cost is less per person served when the service benefits a large number of persons.

Consequently, if other factors are relatively equal or unimportant, projects would be developed first to service the "vital few" needs that would benefit the large numbers of persons. As these needs are serviced, more projects further to the right on the Pareto chart would be included.

But have we not discussed in Chapter 6 that some needs are more critical than others? Yes, and that can be treated in the Pareto analysis in either of two ways. The simplest way is to draw different Pareto curves for each level of criticality. Then recognize that the "vital few" needs shown in the chart of the highest level of criticality would take priority to the needs shown in the second level, etc.

Another way of treating both "frequency of need" and "criticality of need" in one chart is to combine the two factors. For example, each need might be weighted with a criticality level of 1 to 10, with 10 being the most critical and 1 the least. This would be combined with frequency as shown in EXHIBIT 7.2.

You can see in EXHIBIT 7.2 that Need no. 1 still ranks within the vital few even though it has the lowest criticality level (1), while needs no. 6, 9, and 11 rank low even though their criticality is at level 9 or 10.

To resolve this problem, it is best not to combine on the same chart those levels of criticality that are far apart. For example, three Pareto charts might be made, one to show those needs of highest criticality, the second showing middle criticality, and the third showing the needs with lowest criticality. Then, provide weights that apply within a chart, but not from chart to chart.

EXHIBIT 7.1

CHART OF NUMBER OF PERSONS WITH UNFILLED NEEDS

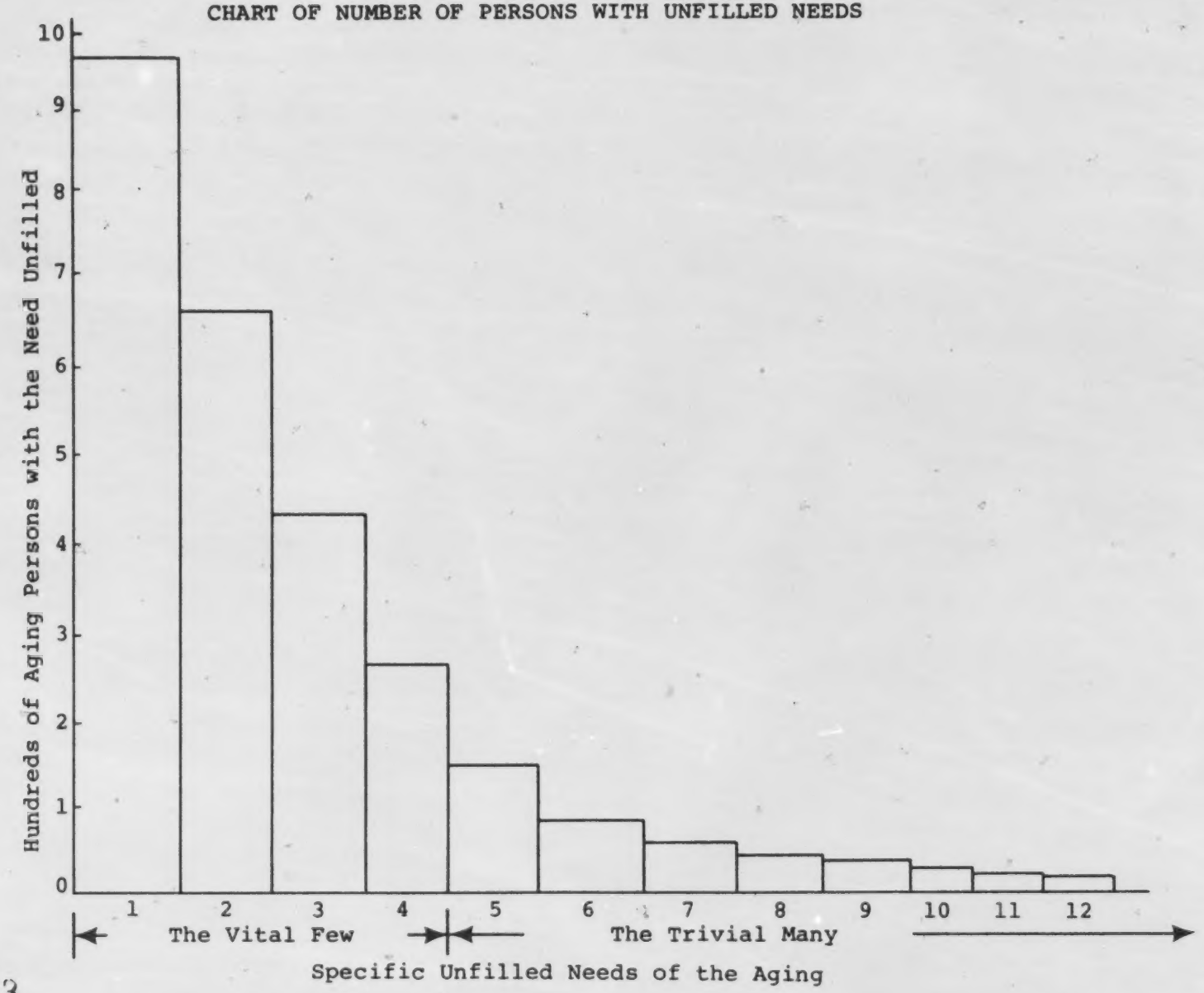


EXHIBIT 7.2

CALCULATIONS OF FREQUENCY WEIGHTED BY CRITICALITY

Need No.	Frequency	Criticality Weighting	Weighted Frequency	New Order
1	960	1	960	4
2	650	3	1950	2
3	430	10	4300	1
4	250	7	1750	3
5	140	2	280	9
6	90	9	810	5
7	60	6	360	6
8	40	8	320	7
9	30	10	300	8
10	20	5	100	11
11	15	9	135	10
12	10	4	40	12

For example, EXHIBITS 7.1 and 7.2 might be showing only those needs previously classified as most critical. The weightings in EXHIBIT 7.2 would then be detailed weightings within the "most critical category." The new order of priority then would have more significance as a guide to the order of providing services to fill the needs.

The Pareto chart is a very valuable tool of analysis. As with any tool, of course, it must be used carefully, so that, in fact, the "vital few" are distinguished from the "trivial many."

b. Goals and Objectives

It is important to plan such that goals of an Agency are accomplished over a period of years. Sometimes these are referred to as "long-range targets." To reach major goals, however, it is useful to establish short-range objectives that are achieved by specific projects, services, or stages.

The development of a plan should be so structured that reaching each goal over a span of years is actually accomplished by achieving a progressive series of specific objectives during that period. EXHIBIT 7.3 illustrates this progressive relationship over a 3-year period in moving toward achievement of the goal of providing basic, balanced meals to all aging persons who are in critical need of that service.

The progressive development can be through expanded service of projects or adding new projects. For example, in Area A (EXHIBIT 7.3), one project might provide a central service for lunch the first year and expand to include 2 meals in the 3rd year. A different project might provide lunch to shut-ins the second year and expand to provide 2 mails daily the third year. Of course, it may require several projects to achieve one objective, or one project might be aligned to accomplish several objectives.

Reaching a goal is like climbing a ladder, where each rung in the ladder represents a specific objective. By progressively moving from one objective to the next, the goal is reached. This implies, of course, that each objective actually is accomplished, although it does not necessarily mean that the beginning of a later objective must wait for the complete reaching of the prior objective. This may or may not be a necessity.

Having long-term goals and more immediate, specific objectives provides strong incentive for those involved in the activity. People like to succeed and achieve. And the achievements must be possible within fairly short time periods. Thus, the structure of objectives provides an organized approach to long-range goals, and they make it possible to provide the frequency and visibility of accomplishment that people need.

So far, we have referred to goals that are directly connected with providing specific needs of the Aging. As discussed in Chapter 6, there are other needs that must be recognized and served.

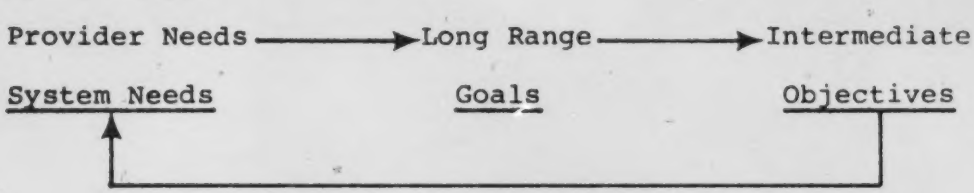
EXHIBIT 7.3

CHART OF OBJECTIVES TO REACH A CRITICAL GOAL

Major Goal	1st Year Objectives	2nd Year Objectives	3rd Year Objectives
Balanced meals	Area A	Area A	Area A
	Central, lunch	Shut-ins, lunch	Central, 2 meals
			Shut-ins, 2 meals
	Area B	Area B	Area B
	Central, lunch	Shut-ins, lunch	Shut-ins, 2 meals
		Area C	Area C
		Central, lunch	Central, 2 meals
			Shut-ins, lunch

Otherwise, barriers are likely to prevent reaching the goals of serving the needs of the Aging.

These needs of the providers and of the system should be structured into the planning in the same way as the needs of the Aging. The spectrum of needs form the basis for establishing the goals. And the goals provide the basis for setting intermediate objectives. As the objectives are reached, the needs of the various groups and individuals should be served. These relationships are shown in the following model:



In conclusion, it is necessary that long-range goals be divided into a series of objectives, each of which can be accomplished over relatively short periods. This keeps projects and activities moving in the right direction, and increases the likelihood that the long-range goals will be reached. The concept of goals and objectives includes serving whatever needs must be recognized in order to meet the primary goals: serving the needs of the Aging.

c. Considering Timing

Often, there are very sound reasons for starting or not starting a certain program or new service during a given period or at a certain period of the year, time in the month, or even day of the week. Consequently, objectives should be timed so that the chance of their achievement is as high as possible.

EXHIBIT 7.4 lists some of the factors that could be important either for or against certain timing. Any of the factors listed could be positive or negative influence on the timing of starting a program, pre-start publicity, solicitation for money or personnel support, and other activities involving new or changing situations in program development.

For example, it could be difficult to get public attention or to attract support in or around the holiday period. People's attention, time, and funds are focused on other matters at those times. On the other hand, it might be beneficial to certain types of programs to tie in the commitment of people and resources with Thanksgiving, Christmas, or the beginning of a new year.

Weather, also, can be a positive or negative factor. The attitudes and interests of the people can be affected, sometimes strongly,

EXHIBIT 7.4

SOME FACTORS IN TIMING OF PROGRAMS

Month of the Year

(1) Weather
(2) Holiday periods
(3) Taxes payable
(4) Elections
(5) Politicians new in office
(6) Preparations for elections
(7) Expected level of business activity
(8) Starting of other new programs
(9) Drives for community financial contributions
(10) Focus of attention on other events
(11) Status of state and national economy

Time of the Month

(1) Pay day
(2) Food stamps purchase period
(3) Timing of other local activities

Day of the Week

(1) Pay day
(2) Availability or emphasis of local newspapers
(3) Week-end consideration
(4) Timing of other local activities

by the weather. Some programs, and people's willingness or ability to assist or participate can hinge on the weather. A central facility for food or recreation, for example, could have better walk-in attendance and walk-in assistance from volunteers during good weather. Once a program is successful for several weeks or months, it may be easier to keep it going during bad weather. In addition, the initial success could generate commitments of resources for transportation and other support needed for success during less favorable weather. Historical information on weather is available at many libraries, such that the normal cycles of temperature, precipitation, and hours of sunshine can be found in a few minutes.

Local elections, in some cases, can provide a positive opportunity for obtaining a commitment of financial resources. If a need is dramatized before the public such that neither party or candidate can afford not to commit his support, then follow-up after the new officials are in office can be more assured with success. On the other hand, trying to boost a program during a very controversial campaign could result in adverse association and reduced public support.

Even the timing of the month and day of the week can influence the results. People are more likely to have money for a few days following pay day. And there may be a certain issue of the local paper that has a larger number of readers because of advertising or want ad cycles. In fact, often it is easier to get articles printed on certain days because more space is available. Considerations of local publicity and conflict with other matters can influence the success of beginning many programs. And the beginning often determines the future.

Timing, therefore, can be an important factor to consider when planning to begin or make a major change in an Aging program. The degree of importance varies from little or none to very strategic. Nevertheless, timing is vital often enough to make it a factor that should be included in the process of planning.

If the timing for starting or changing programs is important, then this time consideration is a factor in the time-planning of objectives, or targets. Consequently, timing should be taken into account in establishing goals and objectives and the time frame within which they should be reached.

d. Arranging the Order

The order, or sequence, of objectives can influence the success of their accomplishment. While order is related to timing, it is not the same.

Timing is directly concerned with the calendar point at which the program begins, the calendar period during which it operates, and the calendar point at which the objective is expected to be reached. Order is the sequence of the successive objectives and the programs and activities to achieve the objectives.

Certain programs need to begin, reach a specific level of

EXHIBIT 7.5

SOME FACTORS CONCERNING ORDER OF PROGRAMS

(1) Level of criticality of needs to be served

(2) Results of one program stimulate resources for another

(3) Higher level of visibility creates support for other programs

(4) Facilitating service required for participation in other programs

(5) An acceptable program generates public tolerance of another

(6) Facilitating follow-through provides effectiveness to programs

(7) Early programs should have high chance of success

(8) Early successes increase chance of future successes

(9) Certain programs generate easier cooperation

(10) Some programs challenge strong vested interest

(11) Programs meeting provider needs crumble barriers

(12) Some programs mate well with the system; others don't

(13) Some programs can amplify the success of another program

success, or achieve certain objectives before a related program begins. For example, a central facility for serving meals, after firmly established, could deliver meals to shut-ins as a supplementary service. Or, volunteers could then be recruited to deliver the meals.

Another factor for determining order of programs is the level of criticality to be served by each program. Critical needs obviously deserve attention before those that are less critical.

Some programs have a high level of visibility and can be used to generate community or system acceptance of less-visible or even less-acceptable programs. An organization that establishes a good reputation, acceptance, and support within a community can undertake marginal projects that could fail under a different situation.

Some programs are needed early because they provide services that facilitate other programs. Transportation may be needed for many of the Aging to take advantage of medical services, meals for the Aging, and central recreation. Escort assistance is needed for many to reach the right providers and follow-through securely. Information and referral is needed for the Aging to begin their search for services to fill their needs.

Especially important to agencies on Aging are programs or services that can provide a medium of cooperation with a provider organization. Some types of projects would create more friction, causing relations to degenerate further. Such controversial projects could be delayed until a good working relationship is established from cooperation on earlier projects that are mutually acceptable.

These and some other factors affecting order are listed in EXHIBIT 7.5. Order is a very delicate matter, and should be based on thorough knowledge and understanding of the needs to be served and the influential forces that can affect the success of each project.

By recognizing the delicate and strategic nature of order, objectives can be set in a sequence that is more likely to achieve success. In some cases, such as facilitating services, the order may be required for a certain program to be feasible. In other cases, the likelihood of success may be increased, and in others the degree of success may be affected. The very likelihood of achieving goals and objectives often is influenced by the order in which the objectives and programs are planned.

e. Management by Objectives

Management by objectives is a means by which all four of the basic functions of management can be achieved, at least in part. It includes substantial participation of the employees in the process. It recognizes the desire of employees to be involved in decisions that strongly affect them, and it permits them a strong voice in determining what they will do and how they will do it.

The entire procedure centers around the setting of goals and objectives, which is a major part of the planning function of management.

Nevertheless, as shown in EXHIBIT 7.6, the process encompasses all four of the functions of management, providing a procedure that assists management in carrying out each of the functions.

Through the MBO process: (1) goals and objectives are set in a participative manner, (2) an organization of activity and resources is achieved through focusing on the structure of objectives, (3) employees are motivated by their meaningful participation and decision-making freedom, and (4) control is enhanced through measurable objectives for each person and a review procedure for corrective action.

(1) The MBO Process. Six steps are shown in EXHIBIT 7.7 as covering the principal stages in the MBO process. To begin the MBO process, the administrators of an agency work out their principal objectives for the coming year. Certainly, these specific objectives should be consistent with the long-range plan of the agency and the requirements imposed on it by the state or the Federal government. Tangible, measurable targets are desirable, so their achievement can be determined.

Step 2 is the setting of objectives by each person in the agency. This involves objective-setting as a process of interaction, especially with his supervisor. The employee may consult with employees below and others horizontal in the organization that have strong interaction with the activity involved in the objective achievement. This is the vital means by which a rational structure of objectives is established, so that conflicts and misdirected effort are minimal.

Step 3 is the working out, by each person, how he will obtain his objectives. Considerable latitude may be allowed here. Normally, he would have five to seven objectives, and they would be consistent with the objectives that filtered down from above. But the means to be used for reaching the objectives are proposed by the employee and worked out with the supervisor, and others if strongly involved.

Step 4 is the piecing together the jig saw puzzle of objectives so that they are coherent, properly meshed, without vital gaps, and directed to achievement of the organization's goals. This is accomplished by the supervisor of each group of people, and blended by the supervisor with objectives and plans of others in cooperation with his supervisor.

Step 5 involves periodic progress reviews as well as opportunity for special counsel/reviews as may be requested by the employer or supervisor. The review/counseling procedure provides control for the MBO process and also provides reassurance and assistance to the employee.

Step 6 is the revising or re-establishing objectives on an annual basis. It recognizes that certain objectives might be extended or modified, while others are achieved and/or replaced. The process then recycles in the 6-step procedure.

(2) Precautions on MBO. Most procedures can be misused, and this is true of MBO. To be effective, it must be used carefully; otherwise it can become a cumbersome administrative load with little or no

EXHIBIT 7.6

CHART OF MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS SERVICED BY MBO PROGRAMS

Management Function	Contribution by "Management by Objectives" Program
A. Planning	A1. Facilitates setting goals and objectives at all levels
	A2. Allows planning in a logical sequence of steps
	A3. Merges organization interests and personal interests
B. Organizing	B1. Requires cooperation up, down, and horizontal in setting objectives
	B2. Enables organizing activity around specific objectives
	B3. Permits flexibility in a well-structured system
C. Directing	C1. Provides active participation in setting his objectives
	C2. Allows employee to determine how he will achieve objectives
	C3. Gives employee freedom in making decisions and pacing self
D. Control	D1. Provides measurable objectives and definite indicators of achievement
	D2. Sets measurable milestones to measure progress
	D3. Includes regular and other needed feedback for control

EXHIBIT 7.7

STEPS IN MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES

(1) Objectives of the agency for the coming year are determined by the administrators

(2) Each person at each level in the agency sets his objectives with his supervisor

(3) Employee plans how to achieve his objectives

(4) Each supervisor pieces together the objectives of his people into a logical structure

(5) Each person reviews his progress and problems periodically with his supervisor

(6) Objectives are reviewed annually

additional benefit. Several precautions should be observed in its use.

First recognize that MBO works best for attaining goals and objectives of development and improvement. It is more cumbersome when used for routine activity or for continuing projects. With care, it can be applied to these cases also, but the advantage often is not as striking.

Second, MBO must be administered carefully to prevent ignoring of routine or other functions in order to attain those five to seven objectives for which he is committed and on which his performance may be measured. This is a strong tendency. Thus, performance reviews should include the whole job, not just the MBO objectives.

Third, objectives must be stated clearly but adequately. A performance measure, or even an objective that does not tie in with a real benefit is rather meaningless. Yet, a measure or objective that is too vague to be measured, or its attainment determined, is hardly an incentive for anyone.

Fourth, supervision must assure that the structure of objectives within his responsibility make sense as a whole. In addition, he and his superior should assure that objectives from one group do not conflict with the objectives of another group.

Fifth, reviews of objectives must assure that control actually is achieved, that the MBO program is motivating the people, and that the objectives are guiding the people toward achievement of the needs of the organization and the Aging.

MBO is applicable to agencies on Aging. It is recommended, however, than an agency ease into the procedure, learning and debugging as the process matures over a period of several years. A sudden leap into the full process can result in its quick failure.

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Note: The numbers preceding each bibliography listing are the numbers of the same listings in the complete BIBLIOGRAPHY at the end of this Manual.

8. EXAMINING PATHS

This step in the process of planning determines the various ways of reaching the objectives and goals and of selecting the path to use in moving toward that end. This should be a very creative step, generating ideas for programs and services. In addition, those ideas are examined to determine which ones are likely to provide the best path to reaching the goals and thus filling needs of the Aging.

It is at this point that idealism must confront reality. Resources (money, qualified volunteers, facilities, etc.) are always limited, and this means that ideal objectives and goals must be modified to be realistic, so that they are attainable with resources that are or might become available.

Creativity is needed in this step not only to generate program possibilities but also to uncover all reasonable prospects for needed resources. Creativity also is needed to anticipate the possible barriers, limitations, conflicts, and other problems that might arise. Creative solutions to these problems are necessary, or creative means for avoiding them.

While creativity is essential to generating the range of information to be considered, the analytical, or critical, examination of this information determines which ideas will be used. This selection is a process of piecing together ideas for programs and services, goals and objectives, and needs to be met and those to be bypassed. Out of this process is generated a structure of programs for planning and development to service needs of the Aging.

This chapter presents methods that are useful in the creative, analytical, and program design activities in this step. Other methods or modifications of these methods can be used in this process. The type of problem, the characteristics of the people involved in this process, and the external influences--all should be considered in the selection and use of the methods for each occasion.

a. Creative Thinking for Solutions

Creative procedures are needed to generate ideas for programs and services, solutions to problems, and resource possibilities to provide the services. Sometimes the very best of creative thinking is needed to solve a difficult or delicate problem or to uncover resources essential to carry out a program. Furthermore, sometimes a very novel or unique idea or combination of ideas generated in creativity sessions makes a very strategic contribution to a program or to filling a need for the Aging.

Creativity methods can be used for the generation of ideas, solutions, and possibilities of any type. They are used to stimulate the brain to come forth with an exceptionally wide range of ideas, including those that may appear as nonsense or impossible as well as those that have been tested and proven many times. After all, a proven method may fail under new circumstances, and a new idea that may have been impractical under past conditions might be feasible under new or modified conditions. Furthermore, nonsense ideas can stimulate other ideas, and an impossible idea might be reshaped or combined with another idea to be feasible and practical.

Two creativity methods are presented here. Both have been used widely and extensively in business and industry. The first, "brainstorming," originated in the field of advertising, and has been used widely for over two decades. The second method, "creative questions," has been used by industrial engineers for several decades, although without any name generally applied to the procedure. There are other methods that can stimulate creativity, but these two are selected for broad application to assist agencies on Aging.

(1) Brainstorming. The Brainstorming method, developed by Alex Osburn, is based on keeping out all criticism or negative comments. It generates a positive atmosphere to benefit from a chain reaction momentum of one idea stimulating other ideas, so that the session produces a continuous stream of ideas. The names of persons contributing ideas are not recorded. Consequently, there is no feeling that anyone will be hurt when his ideas are examined later to select those having potential value. The principal steps in brainstorming are shown in EXHIBIT 8.1.

Two people are needed to lead a brainstorming session: a leader and a recorder. The group participating in the process should be large enough to get a flow of response but not so large, preferably, that each person cannot actively participate.

Plenty of recording space is needed (chalk boards, flip chart pads, etc.), and some means is needed to make a loud noise when anyone issues a negative comment (criticism, etc.). A hammer is sometimes used to hit a bell, table, or other object to chastise the negative comments.

The leader explains the process, encouraging each person to speak out all ideas as soon as they come to mind. The problem is agreed upon, discussed for understanding, and written for all to see throughout the process. Then a warmup session is held, using a simple question or problem, to focus all in a relaxed, creative direction.

Then the ideas are initiated. If they lull, the leader stimulates more, suggesting new areas to explore for ideas. Five to fifteen minutes is sufficient time for a good session. The leader can invite any other ideas that come to mind later to be sent in to him for addition to the list.

EXHIBIT 8.1

TWO PROVEN METHODS OF CREATIVITY

Brainstorming

(The Principal Steps in Brainstorming)

(1) Preparation: equipment, rules, participants
(2) Problem formulation: must be clear and specific
(3) Creativity session:
    (a) Practice warmup
    (b) Request constructive ideas
    (c) Record all ideas
(4) Evaluation

Creative Questions

(Examples of Creative Questions)

(1) Is there a problem or a need?
(2) Is there a better way?
(3) Can the order or timing be changed?
(4) Could somebody else do it?
(5) Could the problem be turned into an asset?
(6) Can the problem be delayed?
(7) Could available services or programs be modified?
(8) Can one service fill 2 or 3 needs?
(9) Are there other, untapped resources?
(10) Can resources be diverted from other programs?

During the session, the recorder writes all ideas on the boards, pads, etc., provided for the purpose. They are numbered and saved for the evaluation session.

If convenient, the evaluation session should be held on a later date. This minimizes the connection between the positive and negative sessions, and provides time to let memory elapse as to who contributed which ideas. This delay is desirable, but not essential. However, the two sessions must be clearly separate and distinct.

In the evaluation session, the same group, a different group, or a different approach through individuals can be used. However, each idea should be weighed seriously before discarding. Some can be eliminated easily, others after moderate evaluation, and the remainder examined with full analysis. From these, hopefully, the solutions, programs, or other developments can be structured.

The brainstorming method is fun, but also it can produce excellent results.

(2) Creative Questions. Creative questions have been used for several decades by industrial engineers to remind themselves of each area to search for creative ideas. Lists of such questions have been successful especially in cost reduction and work simplification activity. But the method, properly developed and used, can be applied easily and beneficially by agencies on Aging.

EXHIBIT 8.1 shows some of the types of questions that can be used for developing creative ideas. To be most effective, however, separate lists of questions should be prepared for each major purpose. There could be a list of questions for use in generating ideas on programs and services, another list for probing ideas on financial resources and another on human resources, while another list would be developed for finding solutions to barriers, pressures, and conflicts involving other people and organizations. Some of these, in time, could be divided into several more-specialized lists.

Such question lists provide more creative stimulation if the questions are arranged in question groups. This way, each area is thoroughly probed with several questions before moving on to the next group of questions that probe another area of the problem, area of resources, or program possibilities. A set of questions, therefore, becomes a set of question groups, organized to lead the user through a logical pattern, or flow, of creative thinking. By moving through such a set of question groups, the possibilities should come to mind rather quickly. Then, like following brainstorming, these possibilities can be evaluated to select those that are useful and can be worked into the pattern of activity.

Brainstorming is a creative method for groups, while creative questions can be used by groups or individuals. Brainstorming produces a random generation of ideas, while creative questions is a methodical, step-by-step search for ideas by using a patterned

movement over the full area of possibilities in a sequence of steps. Both can be highly productive.

b. Finding Your Resources

Resources are essential for any program, and these are not limited to money. Resources include financial resources, human resources, facilities and equipment, and other basic inputs for a program to succeed. Many such resources can be purchased if funds are available. Some resources might be needed which cannot be purchased or which need not be purchased. Volunteers, buildings, and some equipment may be available at little or no cost. On some occasions, a resource, such as a certain type of human capability, might not be available, even for employment, due to scarcity.

This chapter presents the input-output method of examining the availability and allocation of limited resources, and focuses on financial resources. The method, however, can be used generally to examine allocation of any resources.

This chapter does not explore grantsmanship, a type of expertise responsible for exploring availability of funds from governments and foundations, and preparing proposals and providing follow-through for obtaining these funds. Grantsmanship is an intermediary between programs and financial resources for the programs. Grantsmanship personnel maintain contact with governments and foundations to obtain program funds from them, and they work with program planners and administrators to shape programs and program proposals so that they qualify for the funds being sought.

Input-output analysis was developed during World War II by Prof. Wassily W. Leontief at Harvard University. It provided a systems approach to the allocation of limited resources for national needs and winning the war. Input-output tables are the means by which input-output analyses are made. They show the sources of resources (listed down the left) and the users of those resources (listed across the top). Such tables make it easy to see the distribution of the resources that are available from all sources. Then it becomes possible to find how changes in the distribution and changes in the amounts available for distribution might affect the organizations and programs using the resources.

The input-output tables shown here (EXHIBITS 8.2 and 8.3) are modified tables for analyzing the flow of resources for Aging programs. Leontief's tables had the same listing of organizations for input as for output, as he covered the total economy such that the organizations were using resources available from each other. Here we list the sources of resources (Welfare Department, Community Chest, religious organizations, etc.) down the left and list the program category (EXHIBIT 8.2), specific programs, or provider organizations (EXHIBIT 8.3) across the top.

EXHIBIT 8.2 shows the allocation of various organizations to the program categories serving the Aging. Additional sources and program categories could be added to make the table complete for a

EXHIBIT 8.2

INPUT-OUTPUT TABLE ALLOCATING RESOURCES TO PROGRAMS ON AGING

Sources of Funds (Input)	Allocation of Funds to Each Program on Aging (Output)			
	Information and Referral	Transportation	Meals	Recreation
Welfare Department	18,000 (3)			
Community Chest			13,000 (1,6,7)	8,000 (2,4)
Religious Organizations		16,500 (5,6)	8,500 (6)	
Service Clubs				
City Government			6,700 (1,7)	22,000 (4)
County Government	13,000 (3)	13,700 (5)		
Federal Government				
Source A			62,000 (1,6)	38,200 (2)
Source B	13,700 (3)			16,000 (4)
Source C	26,000 (3)			
Source D			36,800 (6,7)	
Source E		67,000 (5)		
Totals	70,700	97,700	127,000	84,200

Note: Numbers in parentheses represent which organizations received the funds. All information is hypothetical, for illustration only.

EXHIBIT 8.3

INPUT-OUTPUT ALLOCATING RESOURCES TO SERVICE AGENCIES

Source of Funds (Input)	Allocation of Funds to each Organization or Agency							
	Organization A		Organization B		Organization C		Organization D	
	Aging	Non-Aging	Aging	Non-Aging	Aging	Non-Aging	Aging	Non-Aging
Welfare Department					18,000	59,000		
Community Chest	4,000		5,500	36,000				
Religious Organizations		17,300		12,000		21,000	8,500	11,000
Service Clubs		6,200		33,000				
City Government	5,200	5,700		18,500				
County Government		3,800			13,000	28,000	13,700	
Federal Government								
Source A	42,000							
Source B			28,200	82,000	13,700			
Source C					26,000	43,000		
Source D		138,000						
Source E							67,500	
Totals	51,200	171,000	33,700	181,500	70,700	151,000	89,700	11,000

Note: All information is hypothetical, for illustration only.

specific region or community. If the table is to show a geographical area covering several counties or several cities and towns within a county, the sources can be completely detailed, listing each county, community, service club, etc.

Once such a table is prepared, many possibilities for resources become evident. For example, EXHIBIT 8.2 shows that some sources have concentrated their funds for Aging programs (Welfare Department, two Federal agencies, and, to a lesser degree, several others). The service clubs are providing no funds for these four program categories. The city government is providing no funds for the I & R program or for transportation, while the county government is providing no funds for meals or recreation. If several city governments, service clubs, etc., are listed, the information can be used to help convince some that their allocations for the Aging are low (per capita, etc.) compared to others.

The numbers in parentheses indicate the specific programs or organizations receiving the funds. The information can be analyzed further to determine which programs are under-funded or plushly-funded. For example, organization no. 6 (EXHIBIT 8.2) may be well-funded for meals, but may be operating an inadequately-funded transportation program.

EXHIBIT 8.3 lists provider organizations across the top, and shows allocations of all funds from the various funding sources. If some of the information on non-Aging funds is not available, that could be so indicated by "n.a.," and proceed to use that which is available. In some cases, the information on non-aging allocations may not be considered to be worth the effort. However, it can be useful if it is readily available.

One benefit of EXHIBIT 8.3 is that the degree of program funding (and presumably effort) on Aging services is readily apparent. Is an organization allocating its resources reasonably in proportion to the whole population it is chartered to serve? Could the five sources (of funds) providing moneys to Organization A for non-Aging programs be convinced to increase their funds to them so that they also could serve the Aging?

There will be cases where funds are allocated to a provider organization to conduct programs that serve both Aging and non-Aging. If there is no better way of breaking out the Aging portion, then split the total on the basis of the percentage of total persons served in the Aging category.

Input-output tables can be very useful in identifying likely sources of funds or additional funds. They also can serve in helping to convince funding sources of the fairness of their increased funding allocations for the Aging. However, it may not be necessary or even appropriate to display the information, but only to use it internally and parts of it externally.

Such tables can be used for analyzing human resources (no. of persons, man days, man hours, etc.) such as volunteers to see if the distribution of volunteer effort in a geographical area is reasonable. Even the types of volunteer effort could be noted, such as executives, housewives, young adults, Aging, etc.). If an organization is plush with assistance, then it could be well to study their means of attracting volunteers. As with certain funds, this information may not be available without excessive effort. The primary purpose, however, of examining the distribution of volunteer effort is to see how the Aging programs can obtain at least their share of such an effort. The number of dependable, capable volunteers is limited in any community.

In using input-output tables to identify potential funding sources, it should be recognized that many source organizations prefer to allocate their moneys in a specific way, to a specific program, or to a particular provider or project leader. For example, a county government may be willing to fund the salary for a specific position in a project, but not be willing to make a general appropriation of funds to the same provider agency. And many organizations, by law or by charter, are obligated to tie their funding to certain projects or agencies.

Certainly, the input-output method of analysis cannot solve resource problems. It can, however, give a wholeness to the effort of examining all reasonable possibilities for funds. It enables a systems approach to help spotlight the sources of funds that are most likely to be available for further programming for the Aging. It also is a stand-by reference indicating where to turn for emergency funding if funds for a project are terminated suddenly or if a sudden demand (from above) for new programming occurs.

c. Developing Your Strategy

Strategy is the structure of the most critical elements of a plan to achieve an objective or goal. These are the breakthrough elements that open the door to the bulk of the activity of a plan, program, or an agency on Aging.

Actually, the word "strategy" can be used as the vital arrangement of any actions to accomplish an objective. This is a broader interpretation of the term, making it almost equivalent to "how." Here, however, we are more concerned with its limited use, confined to the most critical, breakthrough elements of action and how they are structured.

It is vital to recognize that strategy is composed of both: (1) structure and (2) the most critical, breakthrough elements of a major plan. Consequently, strategy not only involves the most critical actions, it also involves how those actions are conducted: timing, relationship with each other, sequencing, who knows what and when, and who is involved and how.

Thus, our concerns here focus on what might be called the critical factors and how they are achieved. Together, these comprise

the strategy for breakthrough and reaching objectives.

Critical factors are the "vital few" which, if properly recognized and achieved, substantially increase the chances of all of the remaining factors, activities, and components succeeding. Looking at them from the negative side, they are factors which, if not properly achieved, make the accomplishment of the objectives or goals highly unlikely. They are bottleneck factors, multiplier factors (negative or positive), or vital catalysts. They also are called "strategic factors."

EXHIBIT 8.4 illustrates what could be some critical factors. Public acceptance and cooperation with a new agency or program on Aging, for example, might be much more likely if it has the acceptance or participation of a certain, highly-respected community leader. Or, obtaining financial resources from an organization might be critically dependent on their specific use being precisely in line with a certain interest or need of the funding organization. Here, the key would be to identify their special interest or need before requesting the funds. Finally, a critical factor in obtaining participation of highly-qualified volunteers could be for the agency or project and its participants to have high visibility, such as through the press, television, or civic clubs.

Developing strategy also involves the structure of the approach for accomplishing the critical factors. Structure can involve timing (such as timing a series of public relations releases prior to seeking funds from the city government), sequence (such as getting a respected friend or associate of a key person to recommend that you contact him to seek his participation or support), who approaches whom, or when or how an individual is approached. How the critical factors are approached is as important as identifying the factors that are critical. Together, these two comprise strategy.

There is no set way for developing strategy: either for finding the critical factors or the tactical structure of the approach to accomplish them. Some of the methods that can be useful, however, include: (1) careful observations, (2) asking vital questions, and (3) testing in small ways and analyzing the reactions.

Planning of strategy, or strategic planning, generally is considered to be a responsibility of top management. This is because it has more influence on the success and future of the organization than does any other type of planning. Furthermore, often there are elements of strategic planning that are disclosed only to the few key persons in the organization. Sometimes strategy, if known, generates counterstrategy that can nullify the critical efforts being made.

Strategy is a major consideration in examining alternatives because the prospect of success of a plan or program relies heavily on the likely success of the required strategy. If an alternative, or path, requires a strategy or a critical factor that is unlikely to be accomplished, then it could be more logical to turn to paths

EXHIBIT 8.4

EXAMPLES OF CRITICAL FACTORS

(1) Public acceptance:
    (a) Administrator belonging to a certain civic club
    (b) Acceptance and/or involvement by key community leader
    (c) Cooperation or support from established local agency

(2) Agencies' cooperation
    (a) Reputation of constructive rather than destructive approach
    (b) Power, especially if latent rather than active
    (c) Good personal relations between leaders of the organizations

(3) Obtaining financial resources
    (a) Highly acceptable results from recent projects
    (b) Proposals that focus on projects of top interest to funders
    (c) Reputable project leadership

(4) Obtaining volunteers
    (a) Fine public image
    (b) High visibility for volunteers
    (c) Limited, short period of high demand for time

requiring strategy that is more likely to succeed. Thus, analysis of alternatives should involve a careful identification of the critical, breakthrough factors required for the success of each alternative and the potential for their achievement. This, of course, should be based on the best tactical structure of approaching the critical factors.

d. Using Checklists

Checklists have been used for several decades (at least) by the military, especially for maintenance of operating equipment. During more recent years, checklists have been developed and used in industrial firms for maintenance and sometimes other activity. Their potential value and use extends well beyond their current use, and certainly into selected activities in planning for the Aging.

Two kinds of checklists are described here: (1) checklists of specific steps to follow in developing an activity, and (2) "tickler" lists or files that serve as a reminder to take certain actions on certain dates. Both types of checklists can be very useful in developing and exploring alternative paths for servicing needs of the Aging.

EXHIBIT 8.5 shows a checklist for developing financial resources. It is only illustrative, and would need to be modified to fit the needs of a specific agency on Aging. This checklist takes the user through a logical, step-by-step sequence of actions in finding resources for a project or program. Note that it begins by examining sources of funds of similar or expandable projects, moves on to Federal funds, then to the local sources for matching funds or remaining funds. Also, the checklist recognizes the needs of the funders, and provides guidance in assuring maximum benefits and visibility for the funders and their support. It also looks to the future as well as the present by continued flow of information, publicity, and any needed corrective action.

But why prepare and use checklists? There are at least two good reasons: efficiency and effectiveness. Efficiency is gained by not having to plan your approach (steps, sequence, etc.) each time you need to accomplish a given task that is repeated from time to time. Effectiveness is increased by continually checking the results of using a checklist and improving the checklist each time a flaw or better way is found.

Pilots use checklists for preparing their planes for takeoff, thus saving time and assuring accuracy. Instructions in the form of checklists are used for preventive maintenance, equipment repairs, machine operation, and skills testing. Form letters, standard operating procedures (SOP),and routines are types of checklists under different names.

Checklists can be made as they are needed, and can be refined through experience as they are used and reused. This enables the future to benefit from the cumulative experiences of the past, rather

EXHIBIT 8.5

EXAMPLE OF A CHECKLIST FOR RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

(1) Start with a well-defined, specific need of the Aging.
(2) Identify services needed to fill that need.
(3) Determine who now is funding whom for similar or related services.
(4) Find out if current providers have resources for expanding.
(5) Explore with current funders if they can increase their funding.
(6) Locate any available funds from Federal agencies or programs.
(7) Calculate local matching funds or equivalent facilities required.
(8) See if there are physical or human resources readily available.
(9) Give current funders first opportunity to expand local funds.
(10) Approach other local funders based on some relevance or priority.
(11) Ask if local funders have a date for planning or increasing funds.
(12) Note any preferred allocation or identification preferred by funders.
(13) Examine the funding alternatives and select preferred sources.
(14) Take into account (step 13) your other future requests from funders.
(15) Record procedures and follow-up preferred by funders.
(16) Arrange all publicity with credit and full benefits to funders.
(17) Assure follow-up reports to funders, with data and pictures.
(18) Prepare favorable, illustrated publicity whenever possible, periodically.
(19) Have others (Aging, leaders, etc.) commend providers and indicate benefits.
(20) Watch for responses indicating funding problems or possibilities.

than suffering through the same mistakes time after time.

Actually, there are many potential uses for checklists by agencies on Aging. The example shown in EXHIBIT 8.5 illustrates a procedure for seeking financial resources. Checklists can be used to serve as guidelines for seeking any resources, interviewing clients, developing strategy for various activities, arranging publicity, and many other functions.

The second type of checklist recommended for general use by agencies on Aging is a tickler list or file of actions to be taken, listed in order of the dates--chronologically. Many actions are cyclical, and must be repeated monthly, quarterly, annually, etc. A tickler list or file reminds you of actions needed on specific dates or during certain periods. This list can be followed in planning and arranging activity.

The benefit of a tickler list can be expanded by including informal reminders: to audit certain projects, to congratulate a person on his birthday, to issue news releases at least periodically, etc. A tickler list also can be improved by noting relevant bits of advice, cautions, and suggestions on the cards or lines needing supplementary guidelines.

There are, of course, many types of checklists and many ways to use them. Their largest value lies in their providing "operating procedures" as guidelines that are continually improved and adapted as experience is gained in using them. People come and go but checklists can serve indefinitely.

e. Checking Your Reinforcements

In selecting from possible programs and projects, the development of a structure of programs within a geographical area should be more than a collection of isolated activities. They should be selected and planned so that they fit together and work together to reinforce each other. Otherwise, the Aging can become frustrated from the gaps, frictions, and barriers between the various programs and services.

Whether programs tend to reinforce each other or to sap each other's energies and efforts usually depends on: (1) what programs are selected, (2) who operates them, and (3) how the programs interact with each other. The first of these factors is the direct concern of this section, while the second is related indirectly. A basically sound program ineptly operated is a bad program choice. Consequently, selecting programs and projects for development and expansion should include thorough consideration of who is to operate them: their leaders and staff, their experience and results, and their community relations and reactions. The third factor also is a definite, indirect factor for consideration in choosing programs and projects. If the programs are likely to interact negatively instead of positively, if they will have major gaps or duplications, or

if their structure is a maze of confusion to the Aging, then the results from their interaction likely will be degenerative rather than reinforcing.

The systems approach to program development makes it more likely that the component projects and activities will interact and reinforce each other as a working unit. This approach begins by examining the whole structure of activities serving the Aging. The components are examined in relation to each other. The components and their interactions with each other and with the environment (community or communities, state and national relationships, etc.) within which they exist are recognized in developing a healthy, successful structure of activity for the Aging.

In this way, each project or program is developed by first determining how it will mesh into the system of services, and assuring that the project is appropriate, well-timed, and likely to succeed. Then, the project is developed as a specific activity and, at the same time, a viable, integrated part of the whole. This helps to assure that each component project is a functional part of the whole and that it does, in fact, reinforce the whole service system for the Aging and results in a net gain to it.

Too often, when the systems approach is not used, each project is "tacked on" to the existing array of services. When this occurs, each project tends to stand alone, with little or no interaction, support, assistance, or reinforcement among each other or between each project and the whole structure of projects. Not only does this piecemeal approach result in less reinforcement, it often is the basis for negative, degrading, and destructive interaction.

EXHIBIT 8.6 shows some of the positive, reinforcing types of relationships among component programs such that each program tends to benefit from the others. The exhibit also shows some negative, degenerative factors that can cause inter-agency conflicts and a type of snowballing decay.

Employees, volunteers, financial resources, and political and community support all tend to be attracted to the harmonious, effective structure of programs. On the other hand, people hesitate to align themselves or allocate their resources to programs that may involve conflict, disharmony, ineffectiveness, or a bad public image. Thus, these factors are significant in the selection and development of program areas.

To summarize, reinforcement among programs must be planned. This planning should influence the programs, or paths, that are selected, as well as their development into a coherent, operational structure that can be effective even under adversity. Thus, the systems approach can help in selecting programs that can mesh together to reinforce each other, and it also serves as a guide to the planning and implementation of the programs and their relationships with each other. In this way, a strong structure of programs is formed, each reinforcing the other, and together serving the many needs of the Aging.

EXHIBIT 8.6

SOME TYPES OF PROJECT INTERACTION IN A STRUCTURE OF SERVICES

Positive-Reinforcement

(1) A project fills a definite gap in the service system

(2) A service amplifies the beneficial results of other services

(3) Cooperation and assistance among the component programs

(4) Each program serving a coherent whole need of the Aging

(5) Study of interface problems by personnel of interacting programs

(6) Active, positive good will of each program for the other

(7) Provision of linkages between people of related programs

(8) Maintaining balance in visibility, power, etc., among programs

Negative-Degeneration

(1) Projects competing for resources or clients

(2) Piecemeal or fragmented structure of services

(3) Duplicate, overlapping, or conflicting services

(4) One program thrusting its failures or difficult cases on another

(5) Independent actions and services where joint effort is feasible

The grid method of analysis, described in an earlier chapter, can be used to apply the systems approach to program selection and development. The grids enable the full scope of programs to be examined in a manner that their relation to the whole and their relation to each other become visible as a structure. These relationships then can be explored in further detail to assist the selection of the programs, their development, and the provision of a support system that continues to strengthen the program structure as a whole.

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9. PLANNING THE PROGRAMS

Program planning is much more than examining various program possibilities, as described in the previous chapter. After the decisions are made as to which types of programs should be developed, the details of these programs must be planned. Such planning concerns what specifically will be done, when and in what sequence, by whom, where, using what resources, and other details.

Often, program planning is oversimplified, with important components or details omitted or inadequately included. The omission of a critical factor can prevent success, or even continuation, of a program. The omission of non-critical factors or the improper arranging of details can weaken programs or result in their mediocre or dwindling success.

The other extreme also occurs. The many, interacting factors that influence success or failure of a program or a network of programs can be overwhelming. Awareness of these influences and the complex ways in which they can prevent success of programs can frustrate and baffle the best of intentions. Yet, each such factor should be recognized and properly handled.

Thus, planning of programs and program operations, so that the Aging will receive the services they need, requires careful listing and organizing of the action steps. This chapter includes three methods for planning the sequence and timing of activities or decisions about activities. In addition, two factors that are vital to program planning are explored, and methods for considering them are provided.

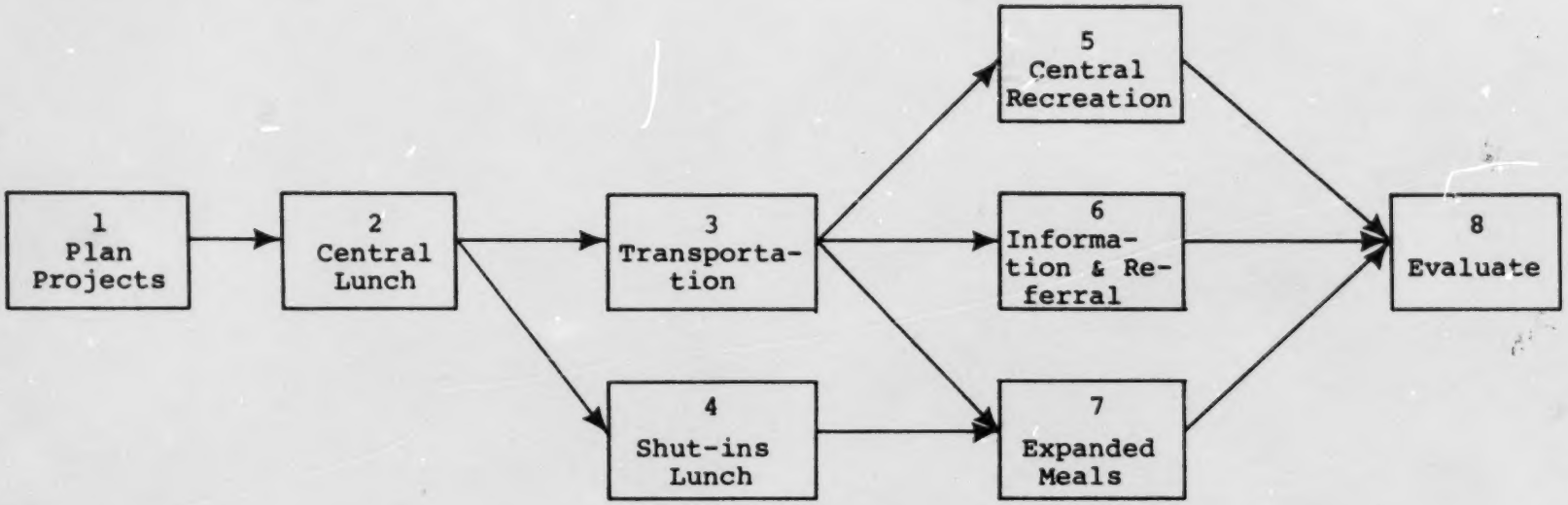
a. Charting Your Plan

An excellent means of showing the various activities and the relationships among these activities is by using a network diagram. Such a diagram shows the time sequence of each activity in relation to the others.

EXHIBIT 9.1 is an example of using a network diagram to show the sequence of developing a group of programs. Activity 1 is the planning of the projects, and assumes that the previous steps (shown in prior chapters) were complete before this time. Activity 2 is a central lunch program, followed by activity 3, a transportation program, and activity 4, an expansion of the central lunch program to include shut-ins. Activities 5, a central recreation program, and 6, an information and referral program, follow activity 3. Activity 7, a further expansion of the luncheon program to include other meals, follows the completion of both activities 3 and 4. Activity 8 is a terminating activity in the chart, but does not imply that the programs have terminated.

EXHIBIT 9.1

EXAMPLE OF NETWORK DIAGRAM OF PROJECTS



This is a very simple and useful way to show the planning of an evolving sequence of programs. A network diagram also can be used to plot the sequence of activities in each separate project. EXHIBIT 9.2 shows an example of diagramming the activities of developing a central lunch program. Note that activities 2 and 3 begin after activity 1 is complete; activity 5 follows 2 and 3; activity 7 follows 4 and 5; and activity 9 follows 6, 7, and 8.

EXHIBIT 9.2 also illustrates the use of network diagrams for scheduling the activities. This enables the plan to establish a timetable for its numerous activities, schedule the time of the people involved and the resources they will need, and to eliminate conflicts before they occur.

A code of the terms is shown in EXHIBIT 9.2. The first step is to insert the name of each activity in its block and assign an activity number to each. Next, insert the duration of each activity in the block marked "D."

A forward pass through the network then is begun by placing a zero in the early start data block (ES) of activity 1.

The following is a series of steps to provide the data in the blocks of that exhibit:

(1) Insert the name of each activity in the center of each activity block.

(2) Assign and insert an activity number to each activity, generally flowing from left to right.

(3) Insert the expected length of time (duration) for each activity in the location marked "D."

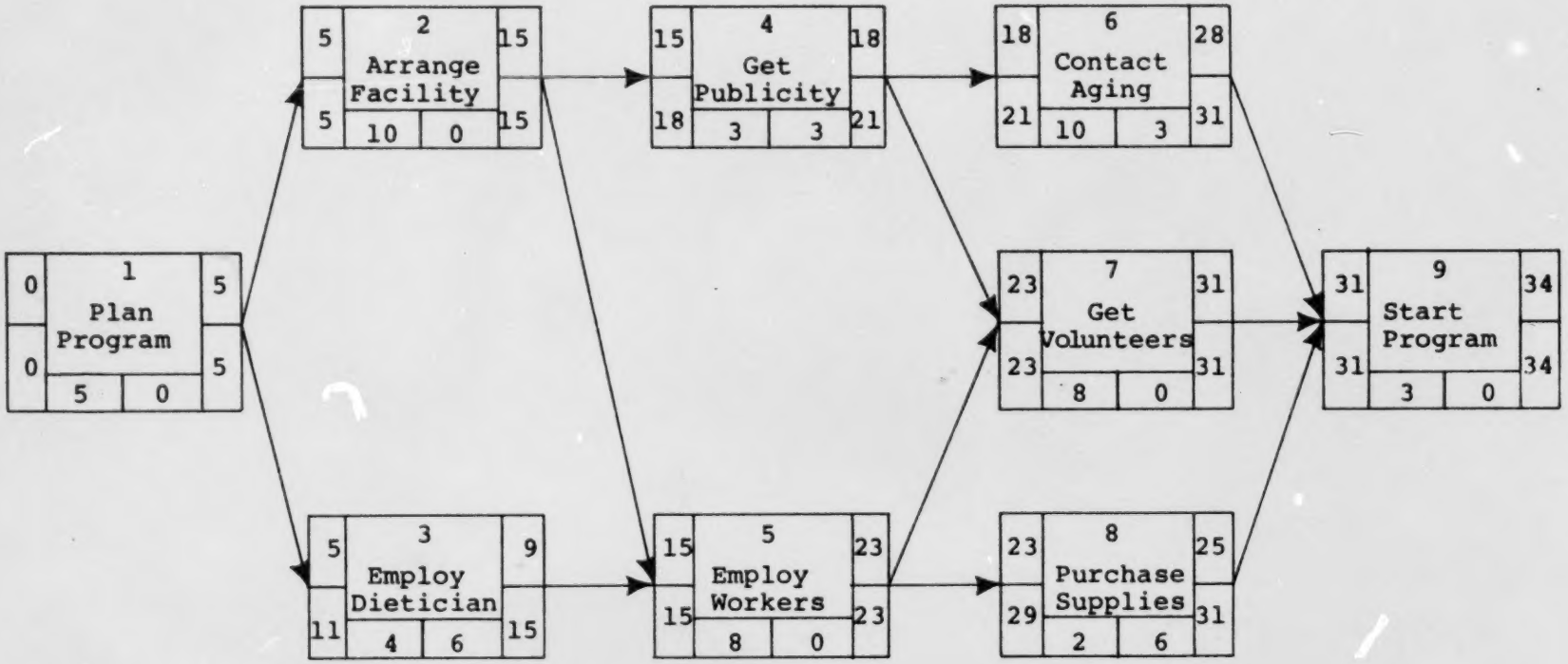
(4) Calculate the early start dates and early finish dates as follows:

   (a) Assign zero to early start (ES) of activity 1.
   (b) Calculate early finish (EF) for activity 1 by adding ES and D (0 + 5 = 5).
   (c) The EF of 5 for activity 1 becomes the ES of activities 2 and 3. Insert them in their blocks.
   (d) Calculate EF of activities 2 and 3 by the formula: EF = ES + D.
   (e) In activity 5, the ES is the largest of the EF dates of the two activities (2 and 3) that must precede it. Thus, ES of activity 5 is 15 (the greater of 15 and 9).
   (f) The ES and EF dates are calculated for the other activities in the same way as shown above by continuing the forward pass.

(5) Calculate the late start dates and late finish dates as follows:

EXHIBIT 9.2

EXAMPLE OF NETWORK DIAGRAM OF A LUNCHEON PROGRAM



ES	No. Activity	EF
LS	D | S	LF

ES = Early start date

LS = Late start date

EF = Early finish date

LF = Late finish date

D = Duration of activity

S = Total slack

(a) The late finish date (LF) of activity 9 is the same as the early finish date (34).
(b) Calculate the late start date for activity 9 by the formula: LS = LF - D. For activity 9, this becomes: 34 - 3 = 31.
(c) The late start date for activity 9 becomes the late finish dates for activities 6, 7, 8.
(d) The late finish date of activity 4 is the smallest of the late start dates for activities 6 and 7. Thus the LF of activity 4 is 21 (the lesser of 21 and 23).
(e) The backward pass continues in the same manner for the other activities.

(6) The total slack for each activity is calculated by either of the following two formulas: (S = LS - ES) or (S = LF - EF). For example, in activity 6, slack is 21 - 18 = 3 or 31 - 28 = 3.

The above calculations are not difficult, and they do enable the network to be used for scheduling the activities. Also, they can be used to control the carrying out of the activities to see that they are finished according to the schedule plan.

Early start (ES) and early finish (EF) show the earliest dates the activities can be expected to begin and be completed. Late start (LS) and late finish (LF) show the latest dates the activities can begin and finish without delaying the completion of the project (or sequence of projects) as shown in the network diagram. Slack (S) shows how many extra days, in addition to duration (D), the activity can take or be delayed without causing a delay in completing the whole project.

This method of network diagramming often is called the Critical Path Method, as you can identify the critical path as the path through the network of those activities having zero slack. In EXHIBIT 9.2, the critical path includes activities 1, 2, 5, 7, and 9. A delay in any critical path element will delay the completion of the project, unless resources are reallocated (extra help, overtime, etc.) to make up the time. There can be more than one critical path, as well as isolated critical-time (zero slack) activities.

In the diagram, the times shown throughout the network are in terms of the beginning date for activity 1 as being set at zero. Thus, 18 for early start (ES) for activity 6 means 18 working days after beginning activity 1.

Network diagrams can be used with or without the scheduling information. In the early use of the diagrams, just the network showing the sequence and relationships among the activities (as shown in EXHIBIT 9.1) could be used. As the diagrams become easier to use, the scheduling of activities could be incorporated on a gradual basis.

Even without the scheduling, the network diagrams help in preparing the total plan of activities, in checking for omission of critical factors, and in identifying strategic timing or sequencing.

Adding the estimates of duration (D) of each activity and making the other calculations helps in additional ways. It assists in allocation of personnel, in reducing idle time, in predicting the timing of each activity, in scheduling all supplies and resources, and in planning other programs that should mesh with any of these activities.

This form of network diagramming is not the type most commonly used in industry. The type described here is less confusing and is easier to learn and to use. It is called the "node scheme," whereas the form more extensively used in industry and military is called the "arrow scheme." If milestones, or frequent targets of completion, are vital to the planning and development process, then the arrow scheme might be preferred even though it is more complex to use.

Network diagramming, especially the activity node method, is very useful in program planning and development. It is recommended for all sizes and complexities of programs and projects.

b. Drawing Gantt Charts

Another method of planning and scheduling activities or projects is by using Gantt charts. EXHIBIT 9.3 shows the same Luncheon Program Development, using a Gantt chart, as was shown in EXHIBIT 9.2 using a network diagram.

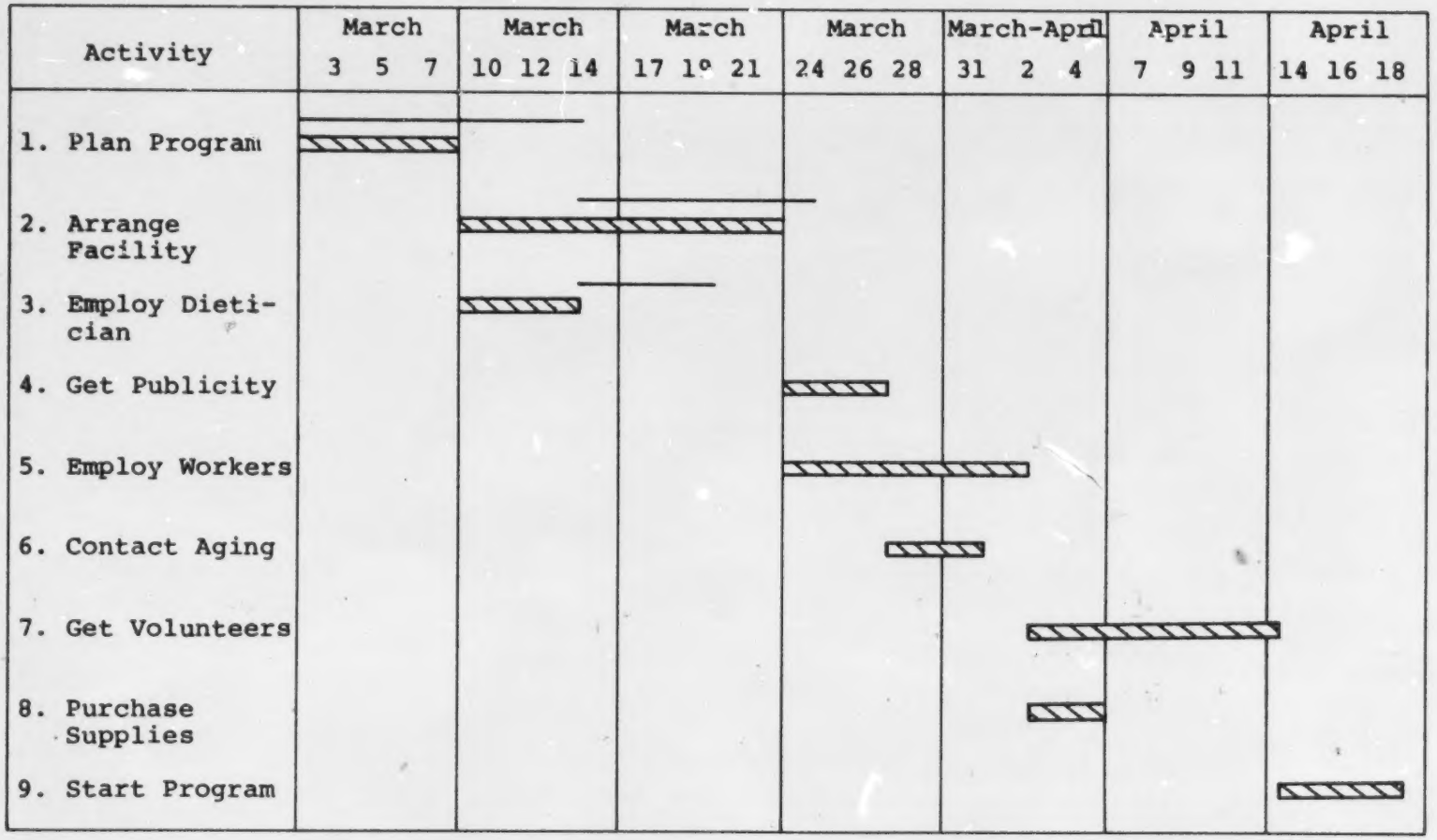
The Gantt chart (see EXHIBIT 9.3) lists the activities down the left column and the working days or weeks across the top. The period of time planned for each activity is shown by the heavy line. The actual time spent on each activity can be drawn in using a light line above the (planned) heavy line.

EXHIBIT 9.3 is drawn to show the actual activity through March 24 (today). It can be seen that activity 1 required four days longer than was planned, thus delaying the beginning of activities 2 and 3 until March 14. Activity 3 will not cause a delay in other projects, and it is shown as having been completed on March 20. However, activity 2 is behind by 4 days, which will delay activities 4 and 5 (5 is a critical path activity), and this will cause other delays later. Thus, attention can be given to allocating extra effort to activity 2 and perhaps to beginning activity 5 early, if possible.

There are some advantages of the Gantt chart over the network diagram. First, the time scale and placing the lines according to the time scale makes it easier to see at a glance the picture of the time schedule of all activities. Second, the length of lines based on their planned duration is instantly meaningful to the user. Third, the ability to plot actual time by drawing a line adjacent to the planned time line provides a visual record for analysis and

EXHIBIT 9.3

EXAMPLE OF GANTT DIAGRAM OF A LUNCHEON PROGRAM



for adjustment of following activities. Finally, partial overlap of activities can be shown when only a certain proportion of completion is required before other activities can begin.

However, there are some disadvantages to the Gantt chart compared with the network diagram. First, when many activities are involved, the Gantt chart becomes cumbersome and confusing. Sometimes this is overcome by preparing separate charts for each project. Second, required sequential relationships are not as clearly shown on the Gantt chart. Third, the Gantt chart is a manual planning and scheduling mechanism, whereas network diagrams can be handled manually or on a computer. Finally, data are provided directly in the network diagram (slack, duration, etc.) for use and recalculation as needed.

Often, whether to use Gantt charts or network diagrams is a matter of personal preference. Gantt charts are more useful in the less-complex situations. Both can be used in research and/or development and in problem solving activities. Gantt charts are more useful for planning and scheduling continuing operational activities.

Gantt-type scheduling boards are available commercially, and these can be reused on a continuing basis. Tape, string, or rubber bands can be used instead of the ruled lines in a chart.

It is suggested that the logic relationships (sequence and dependencies) be developed as a network diagram in preparing plans. This diagram then can be used to prepare Gantt charts or to schedule details for the network diagram. Both methods can be useful in planning for the Aging.

c. Using Process Charts

Process charts are used to establish more effective and more efficient activities, operations, services, and programs. These charts enable an activity to be examined for better ways of accomplishing the goals of the activity.

Different kinds of process charts can be used to design or improve different types of activity. Operation process charts are used to show a complete program or process, or a major part of it. They show all major activities (operations) and how they piece together as a whole process.

Another type is the flow process chart. They can show how a piece of material or a human being flows through a process. Flow process charts often provide more detail than do the operation process charts.

Other kinds of process charts enable even more detailed examination of a specific workplace or man-equipment operation. Other types of process charts can show the flow of reports and forms in an information system or the flow of information in a decision-making process.

The symbols used in the two illustrations (EXHIBITS 9.4 and 9.5) have been used for several decades to improve industrial and business operations. Other symbols can be developed if they are needed.

Process charts can be used to design and improve many types of activities. Two types of process charts are illustrated here, and the examples are selected to reflect two different types of application in planning for the Aging.

(1) Operation process charts. These types of charts show each major operation or activity of a complete process. EXHIBIT 9.4 shows such a chart for a meals program for the Aging. The five symbols used in the chart are shown in the code.

Note that the meals facility receives its food from a vendor, already prepared in bulk, ready to serve. It dispenses the food in two ways: (a) a cafeteria service in the central facility, and (b) a preparation and delivery of trays to shut-ins.

Once an organized process such as this is prepared initially, it can be re-examined for possible improvement. After experience is gained from the program, it can be examined further, and likely more improvements made.

Some possibilities for investigating possible improvements in the process are the following:

(a) Why does the food wait for inspection after arrival?

(b) When are the trays of food prepared for shut-ins? Simultaneous with serving on the central cafeteria, or before or after serving?

(c) Who inspects the food and facilities? What other responsibilities does that person have?

(d) What happens to excess food? Is there a better disposition?

(e) Where are the pans, dishes, and other facilities stored? Is there a better, more convenient place.

(f) How are the food trays kept hot while they are transported to the shut-ins? Would a different way be better or less expensive?

These are sample questions to illustrate the questioning method of designing and improving a process. Other questions can be asked. Each operation can be investigated to see if it should be eliminated or changed.

(2) Flow process charts. These charts follow the flow of material or people through a process. EXHIBIT 9.5 shows the steps of processing clients through a sample information and referral program.

EXHIBIT 9.4

EXAMPLE OF OPERATION PROCESS CHART OF A MEALS PROGRAM

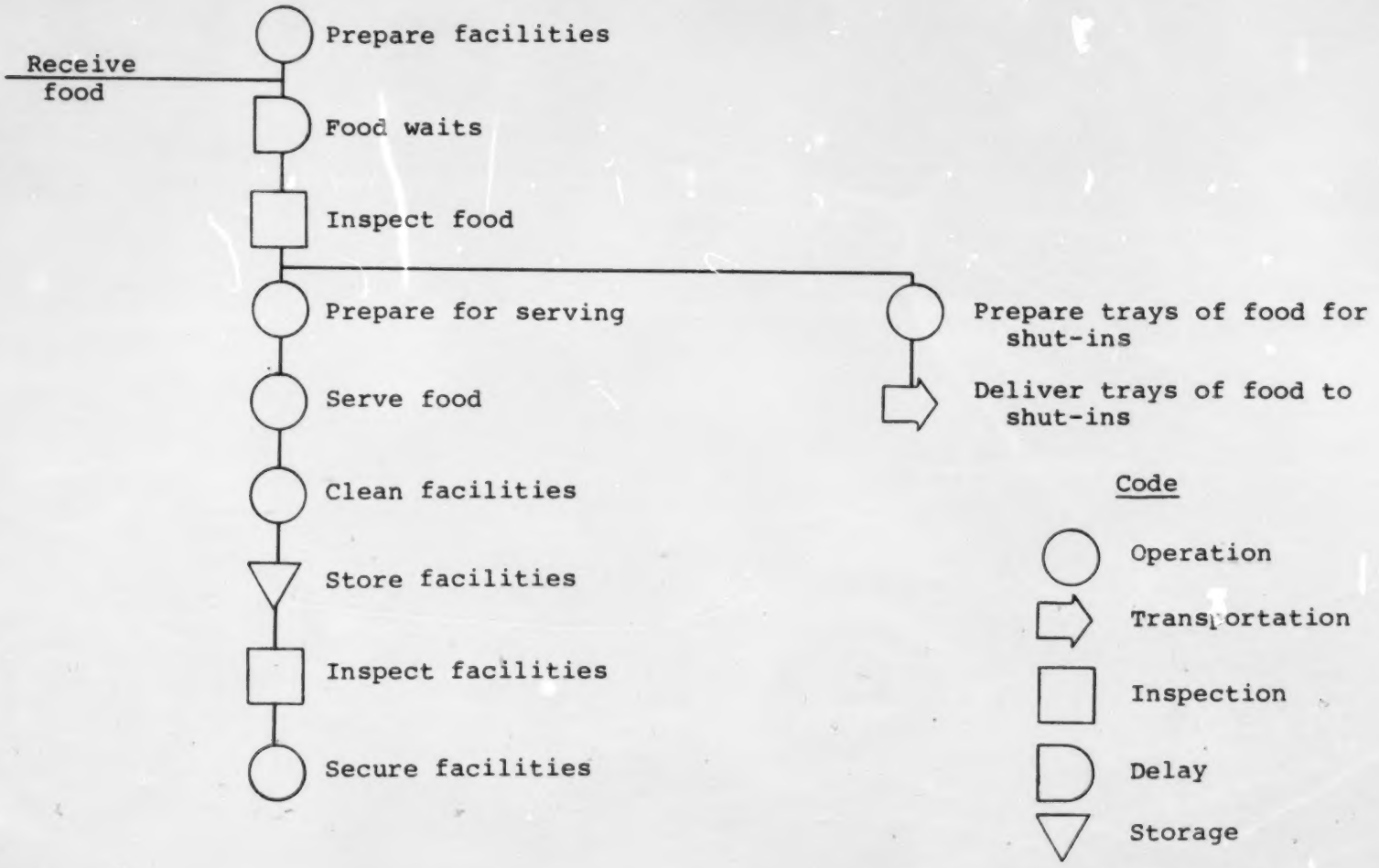
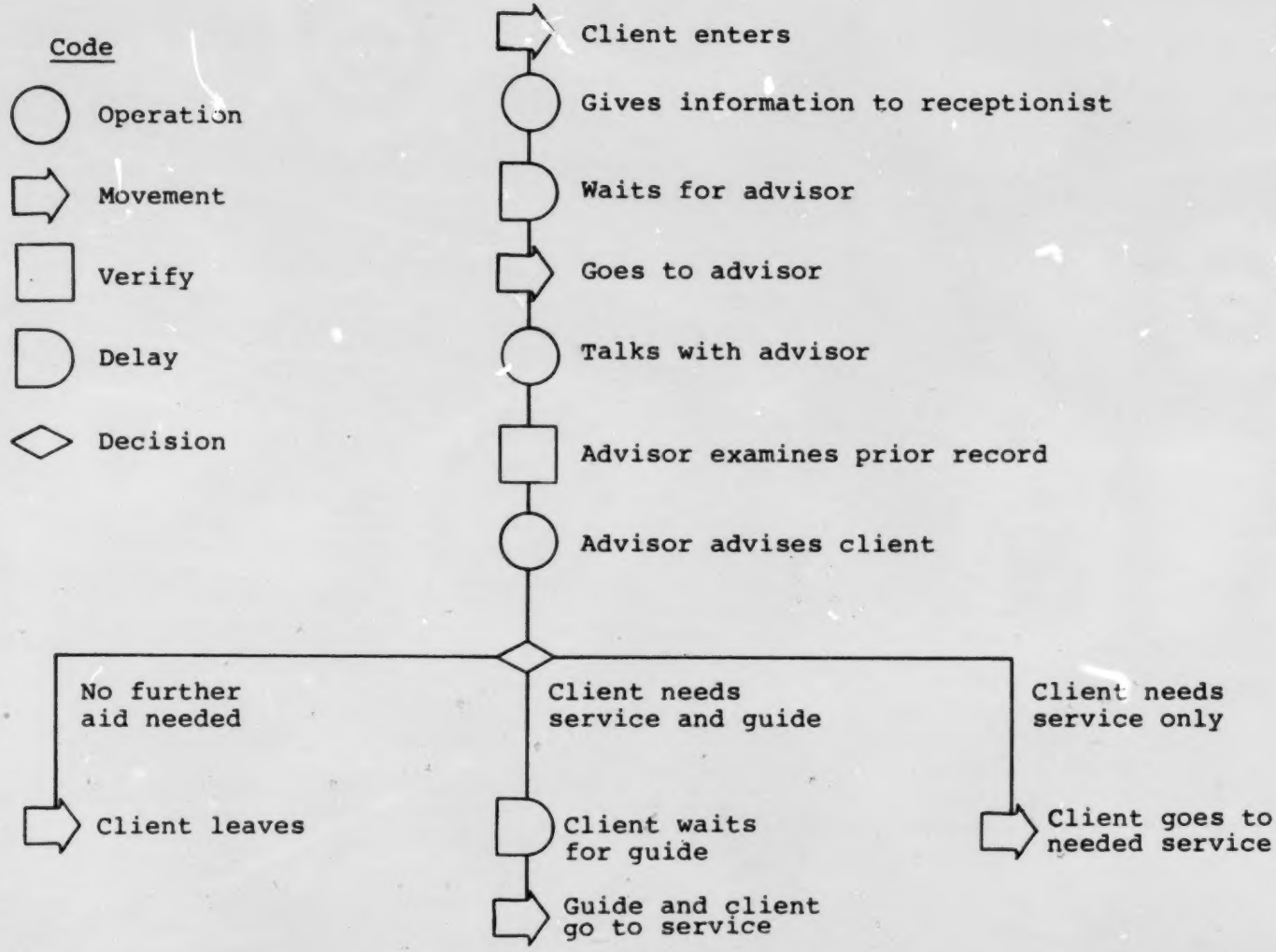


EXHIBIT 9.5

EXAMPLE OF FLOW PROCESS CHART OF INFORMATION AND REFERRAL PROGRAM



It is assumed in EXHIBIT 9.5 that the client walks into the office of the I & R program. A separate flow chart could be drawn for handling clients who phone in or who are contacted outside (such as by outreach workers). It is feasible that the several flow process charts then could be merged into one master process chart.

Note in EXHIBIT 9.5 that a decision symbol has been added. This allows a splitting of the flow into several channels to accommodate the three major results of the advice provided the client.

This type of process chart enables the program to be examined from the point of view of the client as well as the provider. Some of the questions that might be asked to improve the program for the chart include the following:

(a) What does the client see when he enters the facility ? Is it strange and frightening or pleasant and inviting?

(b) Can the receptionist help the clients to feel at ease, to relax, and to be "at home" there and with the advisor? How?

(c) Does the client provide duplicate information to the receptionist and the advisor? Why?

(d) Is the wait for the advisor a long one? Why? Is it likely the client may leave because of the delay?

(e) Are the advisors specialized? If so, is the receptionist able to direct clients to the proper advisor?

(f) What about clients who need a guide for further service but who cannot go for it promptly following the counseling session?

(g) Does the guide or the advisor or both follow up to assure that the case is, in fact, handled to the client's satisfaction?

The flow process chart is a good tool to use for improving both effectiveness and efficiency of programs and activities. The effectiveness can be examined by checking out the flow process in detail with clients who have used the program. Data can be gathered to assist this analysis. Such data can be gathered by observation at different stages of the process and from surveying the clients.

Efficiency is improved by examining the process from the inside. This includes finding duplications, idle staff time, and less expensive ways of serving each need.

Caution should be observed, however, by recognizing that efficiency may be gained at the expense of effectiveness of the program services rendered. Often, however, a change can result in improved efficiency and effectiveness.

The purpose of all process charts is to provide for analysis of the process (program, activity, etc.) in order to design or

improve it. The process design, then, is a part of the plan that uses it. Typically, a plan must determine what should be done, when, by whom, how, and where. Process charts are a means to portray and examine these activities, especially as a continuous process, such as the programs illustrated in the two examples.

d. Planning for Impressions

The most important objective of programs for the Aging is the provision of services that fill their needs, especially their vital needs. Usually, however, it is necessary to make certain impressions if programs are to be funded, publicly supported, or attended by the Aging. Good programs and good impressions reinforce each other to provide success and continuity.

(1) Development curve. The degree and forms of impressions required may depend on the stage of development of the program and/or the organization providing it. EXHIBIT 9.6 shows a typical development curve and the three major development phases. The "initiation period" is when the program or organization is obtaining its initial funds, public support, volunteers, Aging participation, and publicity. It includes the full period up to the point of rapid growth. The "growth period" is the continuous period of rapid growth, and ends as the curve bends over to a slow period of growth. The "stability period" follows, and continues, with little or no growth until another growth period is initiated or a decline, or decadence, period begins (curve turns down).

Often, the largest effort to generate impressions is needed during the initiation period in order to build an initial good image, where no image exists. There is no momentum of program results or impressions on which to build further impressions. This is a delicate, sensitive period, as each impression is establishing precedent for the future. There may be no good will at this stage that can absorb or offset mistakes. Thus, the impressions plan for this period must be made carefully. Impressions that are needed to generate support at certain points must be planned to be timed to provide those impressions by that time. Otherwise, program delays may be necessary.

The growth period, in many respects, is the easiest period for impressions. Success has a snowballing effect. People like to be associated with success and with programs and organizations that attract others with whom they like to associate. During the growth period, success is expected, funding sources may want to be approached for funds, and impressions are not as essential because the growth "speaks for itself."

Danger is hidden behind the successes of the growth period. It is easy to assume that the rapid growth will continue indefinitely and that impressions no longer need to be planned. As this slippage occurs, the growth rate begins to lessen, new funds tend to be allocated elsewhere, and the prime volunteers begin to look elsewhere for their involvement. Consequently, impressions are important

EXHIBIT 9.6

TYPICAL DEVELOPMENT CURVE OF PROGRAM OR ORGANIZATION

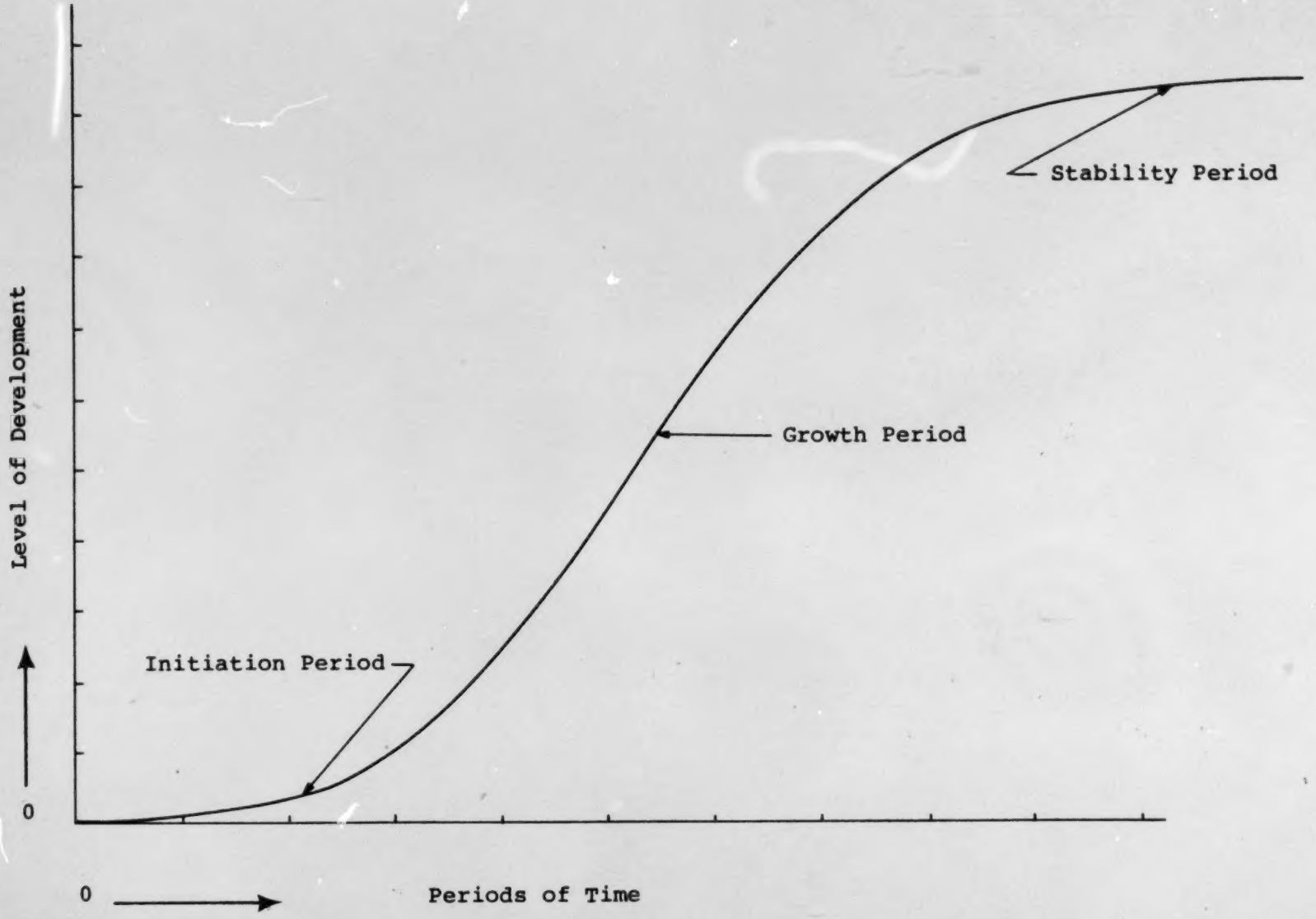


EXHIBIT 9.7

SOME STEPS IN PLANNING FOR IMPRESSIONS

(1) Determine who (groups, individuals) needs to be impressed.

(2) Decide why they (each of them) need to be impressed.

(3) Find out when they need most to be impressed.

(4) Determine the ways how each can be impressed.

(5) Select (from step 4) those efforts most likely to provide needed impressions.

(6) Prepare a plan (what, when, who, how) for one-time impressions.

(7) Prepare a separate, but interacting, plan for continuous impressions.

(8) Carry out the impressions plans, adapting, as needed, for results.

(9) Carefully observe and record results of impressions activities.

(10) Provide corrective revisions to current and future plans.

and should be planned and generated continuously during the growth period. However, while impressions during the initiation period tend to be substantially one-time type, those during the growth period are of the continuous, or at least periodic, type.

The stability period is due to a saturation of the market (fulfillment of the needs of the Aging), drying up of new funds, ending of short-term funds, involvement of the available people, or boredom from routine and withdrawal for change.

Impressions (good ones) are especially vital throughout the stability period. In our dynamic era, little or no growth is interpreted as declining (relatively). Plans should provide for continuous generation of impressions, showing new and impressive (old) results of existing programs and maintaining sensitivity for any new impressions, needs, and opportunities. Otherwise, the stability period is likely to turn into a period of decline.

(2) Steps to impressions. EXHIBIT 9.7 shows ten steps that can assist in planning for impressions. The first five steps provide for obtaining the basic information on impressions needed: who, why, when, how, and what. Steps 6-10 are concerned with developing a plan, implementing it, adapting it to reality, and continually improving the plan based on corrective action.

Note that step 6 is concerned with one-time impressions. These include: (a) impressions for starting a new program or organization, (b) impressions for obtaining new funding, (c) impressions for salvaging threatened funding, (d) impressions for making a breakthrough with another organization, or (e) any other type of extraordinary impressions.

In contrast, step 7 is concerned with continuing or periodic impressions, such as: (a) maintaining the public image, (b) getting refunded periodically, (c) holding up morale of employees and volunteers, and (d) others serving existing or on-going needs.

It is recommended that network diagrams be used for charting the development of one-time impressions, as these are more related to program development. For planning continuing impressions, it is recommended that Gantt charts be used. The Gantt charts show scheduling of continuous and periodic activity to generate impressions.

In summary, impressions are vital to a program or organization, and it is important that they not be underrated or neglected. Good impressions, however, can only reinforce good programs and good results; they cannot replace them, nor should they be used to camouflage bad programs or results. Planning for the Aging needs good programs providing good services that are reinforced by good impressions.

e. Considering Risk

We can rarely, if ever, be certain about the future. Stating it differently, concern with the future involves many uncertainties.

Consequently, there is risk that estimates and expectations of the future will be in error; how much in error is uncertain. That is part of the risk.

Due to uncertainties, we incur risk that programs will fail, client response will be inadequate, funds will be terminated or reduced, adverse reactions will occur, unforeseen problems will show up, or people will fail to respond as desired. These are only a few of the factors of uncertainty and risk. EXHIBIT 9.8 lists some common risks incurred by agencies on Aging and others working in these programs.

It helps to recognize that risk is present everywhere in the real world. The future always involves uncertainties and the future outcomes of today's decisions and actions are associated with risk. Thus, uncertainty and risk are a fact of life, and, in general, the more dynamic or change-oriented societies involve more frequent risks.

Although risk, in general, may be unavoidable, often it can be reduced. Sometimes the risk is preferred to the only alternatives available if the risk is to be reduced. For example, a one-year funding may be available for a certain project, but the chance (risk) of not having funds beyond the one year may be very high. The only alternative may be to reject the funds, and this might be less desirable than accepting the funds and the risk of termination after one year.

On the other hand, sometimes risk can be reduced without making a radical sacrifice. For example, there may be a high risk of powerful, bad relations resulting from approaching a particular agency because of the personality of the agency director. Perhaps that risk could be greatly reduced by first obtaining insight about the director from someone who knows him well, then preparing a strategy of approaching the director that will reduce the risk of his rejection or adverse reaction.

A suggested approach to risk analysis is the following:

(1) Determine which actions, activities, etc., are sufficiently vital to deserve an analysis of risk.

(2) List the principal risks involved with the action or activity being studied.

(3) Assign a degree of criticality to the matter. For example, a highly-critical matter might be assigned a criticality level of 10, while a non-critical matter might be assigned zero or one.

(4) Assign a level of risk (chance of failure or chance of major problems) ranging from zero (no risk) to 1.0 (high risk).

(5) Multiply criticality times the risk. Note that this will range between zero and ten. If this product is high

EXHIBIT 9.8

SOME RISK FACTORS IN DEVELOPING PROGRAMS FOR THE AGING

(1) Risk of financial rejection, termination, reduction

(2) Risk of program failure or mediocrity

(3) Risk of program or provider rejection by clients

(4) Risk of bad public relations

(5) Risk of adverse influence by a community leader

(6) Risk of rejection and pressure from competing agency

(7) Risk of adverse personal relations within program

(8) Risk of failure to be creative and innovative

(9) Risk that others will be more competitive for resources

(10) Risk that opportunities will go unnoticed and undeveloped

(say 5 to 10), strategy should be planned. In fact, if criticality is very high (say 8 to 10), and there is any reasonable risk (say 0.2 or above), then strategy should be planned.

(6) Analyze the risk factors (if strategy planning is indicated), to find feasible alternatives for reducing the risks without impairing the actions or activities.

(7) Plan a strategy based on the best alternatives, so that risk will be moderate and/or the consequences of the risk are less than critical.

(8) Prepare contingency plans, as alternative courses of action that involve high, critical risk (see sections e(1) and e(2) of Chapter 6 for further discussion of contingency plans).

Risk analysis is especially useful to detect occasions or situations that are likely to result in a crisis or serious problem. When these situations exist, risk analysis also helps identify the feasible ways to reduce risk or the degree of criticality of the risk.

It is especially important to be aware of risk, and to have some means for signalling special attention and action when the risk and criticality become too high. Risk analysis and risk control can make the difference between failure and success or between program termination and survival.

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10. EVALUATING RESULTS

Results of any activity, program, or organization should be evaluated. This evaluation is necessary to assure that programs are, in fact, accomplishing their goals. Evaluation also provides information for corrective action, if needed.

This information should be provided where (to whom) it is needed, when it is needed, for proper program surveillance and control by the "management by exception" principle. This principle recognizes that management need not be burdened with information of routine, satisfactory results. They need information about the exceptional situation (bad and good), so that their actions may be taken to correct the exceptionally bad and recognize the exceptionally good.

There are two components of evaluation: effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness expresses the degree to which the program objectives or the organization objectives are obtained. Efficiency is an expression of the cost of providing programs. Effectiveness is concerned with the tangible results (output) of a program, while efficiency is concerned with how those results are achieved (input of funds and other resources relative to the output of program results they provide).

Although effectiveness and efficiency measure different components of program success, there is a close relationship between them. Both are directly concerned with the program output. Effectiveness compares the output with the program objectives (planned output), while efficiency compares output with the input (resources, costs) used to provide the output.

For example, assume the costs and results of three similar programs are as follows:

	Objective (Meals per day)	Results (Meals per day)	Cost (Dollars per meal)
Program A	100 meals	80 meals	1.25
Program B	100 meals	100 meals	1.25
Program C	125 meals	100 meals	1.10

Note that Programs A and B have the same objectives, but Program B met its objective while Program A met only 80% of its goal. Program A was only 80% as effective as Program B. However, both programs operated with the same efficiency, as measured by the cost per

meal served (cost = input; meals = output).

Comparing Programs B and C, both had the same output, but Program C failed to reach its goal by 25 meals per day, or 20% of the goal. However, Program C was more efficient than Program B, as its average cost per meal was only $1.10 compared with $1.25 for Program B.

The example, of course, is simplified to illustrate the difference between effectiveness and efficiency. Actual situations usually are more complex. Objectives may include other tangibles such as participation of the elderly in the planning and/or work, low use of energy and fuels, and use of scraps for food or feed. Objectives also may include intangibles, such as community good will and morale of the clients. Objectives, explicit or implied, would include food quality factors such as nutrition, taste, appearance, variety, and appeal. Such objectives can be specified and used as program targets.

Output, or program results, would be compared with program objectives and the same units of measurement would be used for both objectives and results.

Input of resources is not confined to money, although financial resources constitute a major input of most programs. Resource input can include time contributions of volunteers, physical resources made available at little or no cost, and service resources made available by such organizations as phone companies, merchandising firms (delivery, advice, etc.), and repair service firms (garages, appliance repair, etc.).

The concept of effectiveness is to meet the program objectives, and those objectives should, if met, imply a certain level and excellence of fulfilling needs of the Aging. The concept of efficiency is to make good use of the resources required to provide the program results to meet the objectives. Efficiency implies that no more resources should be used than are necessary to achieve the program goals. Higher efficiency means that more results are being obtained from the resources available and/or fewer resources are being used to achieve the program results. High efficiency often implies that more results are being achieved and/or more (unused) resources are available for other programs or organizations.

The five sections of this chapter are concerned with both effectiveness and efficiency. Section "a" is concerned with effectiveness by focusing on the program impact. Sections "b," "c," and "d" are concerned with efficiency, getting the most results for the program inputs. The final section, "e," involves both effectiveness and efficiency, as it relates to involving the Aging in the Aging programs.

This chapter is not intended to replace or to relate directly with the evaluation procedures required by government agencies. Instead, this chapter provides methods and concepts of evaluation that lead toward continuous improvement of the programs and their results.

These concepts and methods are intended to provide supplementary assistance to agencies on Aging, to assist their search for ways to serve the most needs of the Aging with the resources available.

a. Finding the Impact Profile

Effectiveness is directly concerned with meeting program objectives, but indirectly, through the objectives, is concerned with filling the (unfilled) needs of the Aging. Stated differently, effectiveness can be used to measure the degree to which the program (or programs) reduce the unfilled needs and the problems of the Aging.

Section "c" of Chapter 6, entitled "Profiling the Client Needs," provided a means for distinguishing the client needs by level of criticality (critical, important, and beneficial). The impact profile shows the effect of a program or a set of programs on the profile of client needs.

EXHIBIT 10.1 shows the actual or estimated impact of a meals program that also included transportation as a facilitating service. The chart shows that the critical food needs are served for 250 people and the important needs for 300 people. Compare this with EXHIBIT 6.7, and it can be seen that the total critical needs are filled and all except 100 persons are provided with their important needs for food.

In addition, EXHIBIT 10.1 shows that part of the needs for preventive medicine are filled as a result of allowing the transportation (developed for the meals program) to be used also for transporting clients to obtain medical services from existing medical facilities. Also, the meals program provides social contact that is permitted to extend over an extra period of time on certain days, yielding some recreational benefits as an indirect result.

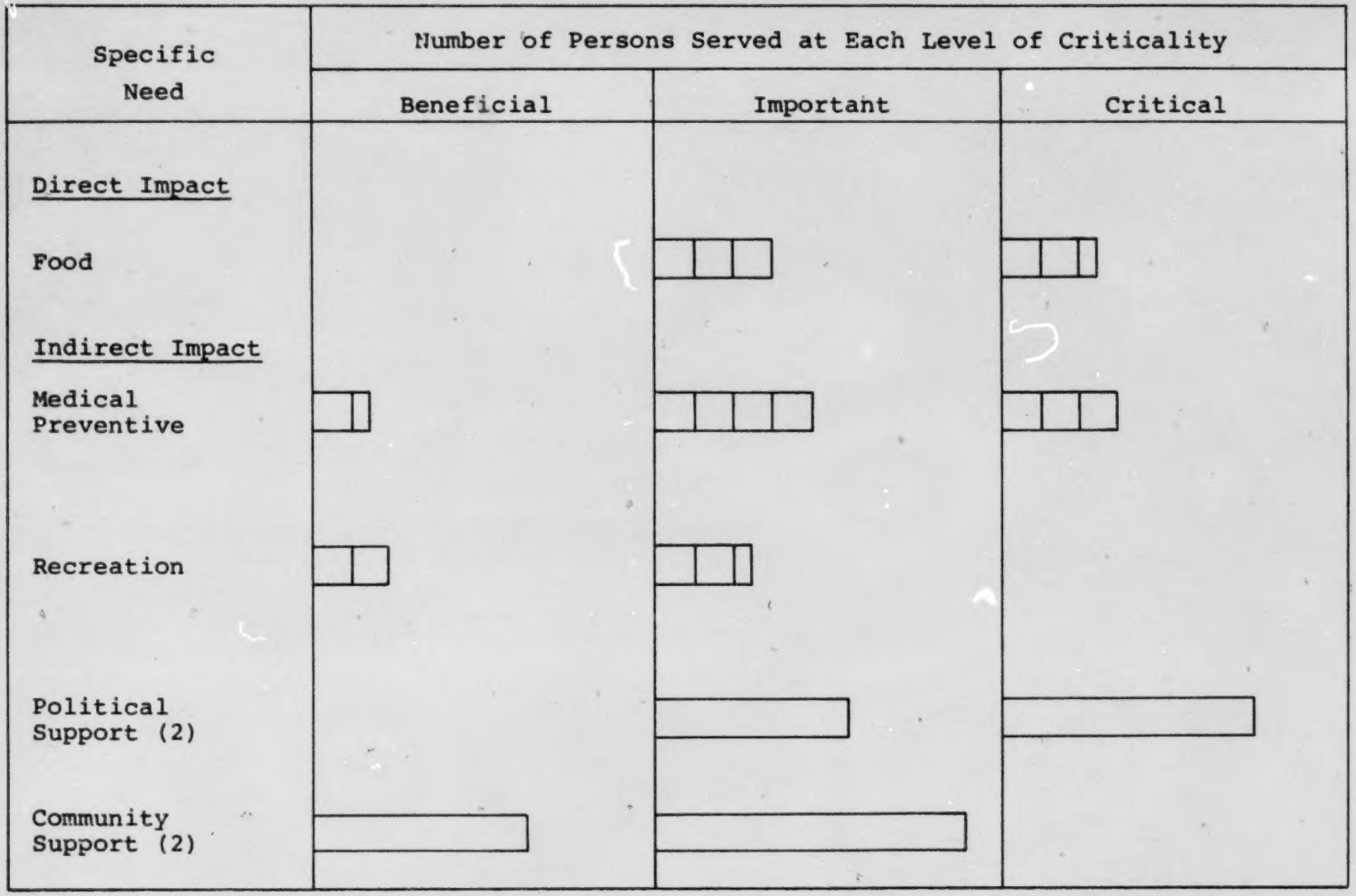
EXHIBIT 10.1 shows that the meals/transportation program, and its results, also has had a substantial impact of political support and improved community support (good will). The length of the bars for these two benefits is estimated to represent the percentage of total need that was filled by the project. If the bars had filled the full distance under the respective level of need, it would imply that the need was completely filled.

The impact of one or more programs can be shown on EXHIBIT 6.7 (Profile Chart of Aging Needs) by filling in those blocks with color or patterns that are representing persons served by the respective programs. In this way, only the unfilled blocks represent persons having those needs yet unfilled. This type of chart can be very revealing of the impact of programs, and can be used to solicit continuing or additional funds.

Knowing the impact of programs is very useful in determining the needs for continuing, modifying, or expanding current programs. Impact must be compared with the costs to assure effective allocation and efficient utilization of resources. Projections into the

EXHIBIT 10.1

EXAMPLE IMPACT PROFILE CHART OF MEALS-TRANSPORTATION PROGRAM



Note: (1) Each full division (square) represents 100 people.
(2) These bars show estimated proportion of need that was filled by the program.
(3) All information is hypothetical, for illustration only.

future should be based on relevant facts, and program impact is certainly relevant information for planning future programming.

b. Comparing Benefits and Costs

Benefits of a program often are compared with the costs of the program. Such comparisons help to answer such questions as: Are the costs too high? Should the funds be transferred to other programs or geographical areas? Should the program be expanded or contracted? Can the costs be lowered without serious sacrifice to the program benefits?

Three methods of examining costs in relation to benefits are provided in this section. These are: the benefits-cost ratio, value analysis, and the marginal productivity curve. All three involve concepts, or ways of thinking about achieving top value in benefits for each dollar of cost expended. None of the three provides clear measurements for calculating the precise relationship between costs and benefits. All three are useful, however, even for approximations that can guide decisions on obtaining and allocating resources.

(1) Benefits-cost ratio. The benefits-cost ratio is a comparison of the benefits and the costs of obtaining those benefits. If the benefits (expressed in dollars) exceeds the costs, then the benefits-cost ratio is higher than 1.0. If the ratio is less than 1.0, it implies that the funds should not be spent, but a ratio higher than 1.0 does not necessarily imply that the program should be funded.

As an example, if a meals program is expected to cost $50,000 each year and the benefits are judged to be worth $70,000, the benefits-cost ratio would be 1.4. Presume, however, that the same funds could be used in a different program and result in benefits worth $100,000. The benefits-cost ratio of 2.0 implies that the funds would be spent more wisely if they were allocated to the second program.

Note that the benefits-cost ratio can be increased by raising the benefits or lowering the costs, or both.

The Federal Government uses the benefits-cost ratio as a measure for accepting or rejecting many projects for funding. In its proper, sophisticated use, the time value of money also is included in the formula, but that is needed primarily where major investment is made in capital equipment with a long life expectancy.

The major difficulty in using the benefits-cost ratio is in expressing all costs and all benefits in the same terms, usually in dollars. In many programs, the total costs are already expressed in dollars, or dollar equivalents, and, therefore, are available.

Expressing the benefits in terms of dollars usually is more difficult, and frequently is not feasible except as "guestimates." Often, instead of expressing benefits in terms of dollars, they are placed in some other form that can be compared with each other, or ranked.

For example, a scale of criticality might be established, such as 1 to 10 (10 being the most critical), and the value of the average unit of service allocated a level on the scale. That level would then be multiplied by the number of persons served, and that product divided by the total cost of the service. The following example illustrates three projects:

	Criticality Level (1)	Persons Served (2)	Benefits (1 x (2) (3)	Cost per Month (4)	Benefits Per Dollar (3) ÷ (4) (5)
Project A	10	300	3,000	$10,000	0.30
Project B	8	500	4,000	$10,000	0.40
Project C	5	500	2,500	$10,000	0.25

In the illustration above, column (5) is the benefits-cost ratio in a relative sense. That is, the figures have meaning only in comparison with each other. As can be seen in column (5), Project B has the highest benefits-cost ratio, with Project A having only 75% as much and Project C having only 63% as much.

It requires ingenuity to use the benefit-cost ratio, but experience in its use can increase the accuracy of the results. Often, it is the best method available for comparing alternative projects or possible allocation of funds. Used carefully and honestly, it is very useful.

(2) Value analysis. This is a method for obtaining the desired results at lower costs. In value analysis, the function of the project or activity is defined, then brainstorming is used to find many ways of achieving that function, then the lowest cost (or best) method or program that will achieve the function is selected.

For example, the function of a meals program is to feed people. Usually the function is expressed in two words, a verb and a noun: "feed people" in this case. Of course, we must be sure we know what we mean by the function: how many people and which meals?

To carry the example further, we then brainstorm how to feed those people: central cafeteria, meals delivered to their houses, TV dinners, boxes of dry food, baby food, dog food (some of that is more nutritious than the food that many of us eat), a travelling restaurant in a van, etc. Some of the ideas may be worthless themselves, but often they cause people to think of other ideas. Furthermore, many ideas are more feasible than they appear at first.

The idea of value analysis is to select the method, program, or activity that provides the desired function (results) at the lowest cost. However, as with other methods of analysis, one should be open to shades of variation in the quality of the results. Also, often, one approach might provide some secondary functions that also have value.

Value analysis is used extensively and has resulted in millions of dollars in savings, and often also has resulted in superior, improved benefits as well. It can be used and useful in improving efficiency, and often effectiveness, in any type of program or activity.

(3) Marginal productivity curve. EXHIBIT 10.2 shows a typical marginal productivity curve. The curve implies that as more money is put into an activity, the benefits received for each new dollar of cost becomes less and less. Of course, this assumes that we do the best we can with the money from the very beginning, thus spending earlier dollars on the more critical cases.

For example, assume that a medical services program is developed in five stages. In the first stage, the most critical 25 cases daily are handled. In the second stage, the next most critical 25 cases daily are added. The criticality level of these second 25 cases daily would be further down the marginal productivity curve. As each stage develops, the next most critical 25 cases are handled. If these stages are plotted, using some measure of criticality level, against the additional dollars of cost expended, a marginal productivity curve would result.

The concept of the marginal productivity curve is simple: there is declining productivity (value received per dollar expended) for each additional dollar of cost expended. It applies generally as more funds are poured into a given project. Consequently, it recognizes that there reaches a point of funding and expanding a project when more benefits per dollar would be received if any additional funds were allocated to other projects instead of to that one.

This concept has broad validity. It does not conflict with the fact that projects usually develop and expand in "lumps" rather than in small units. Neither does it conflict with the principle of increased productivity from higher volume, although the two principles together may modify the left-hand part of the curve.

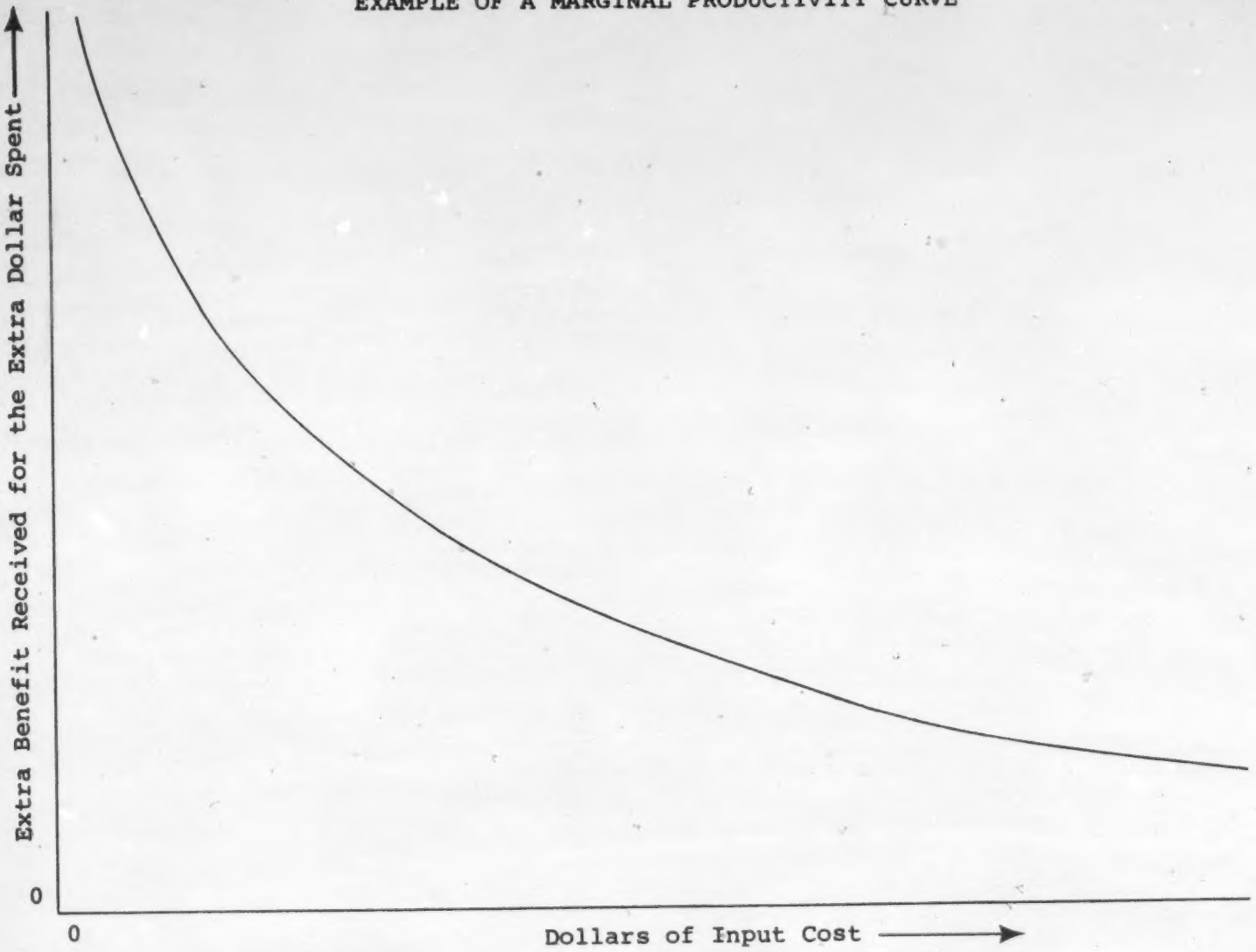
The marginal productivity curve has two useful concepts: (1) in allocating funds, slide down the curve; i.e., serve those cases most critical in their needs; and (2) slide off the curve (onto another project) before you slide very far down the curve on any single project. This second concept merely cautions each of us that critical needs of all types should be served before expending moneys to serve lesser needs.

Thus, as a concept, as a reminder, and as a reason, the marginal productivity curve helps us to get the most in benefits for the Aging for each dollar expended.

All three of the concepts presented in this section are useful as guidelines for efficient, effective allocation of funds. The first two concepts are tangible methods, however, and can be used in practice for the programs on Aging as they currently are used for many other types of programs.

EXHIBIT 10.2

EXAMPLE OF A MARGINAL PRODUCTIVITY CURVE



c. Saving Costs

There are two general phases to saving costs: cost avoidance and cost reduction. Cost avoidance is the planning of efficient utilization of resources before obligations are made, equipment and supplies are purchased, and operations and services have begun. It avoids the spending of unnecessary funds, and also avoids developing ways and patterns of activity that would have to be changed if costs are saved. Cost reduction involves changes from the established methods or use of resources. It requires people to change their ways, and often involves scrapping equipment, materials, and personnel obligations.

Although cost avoidance generally returns more benefits and fewer griefs, cost reduction is more widely practiced. This probably is because: (1) frequently, time is limited in the initiation or development period of new programs and projects; (2) early efforts tend to concentrate on program effectiveness (making it work, getting results); and (3) the results of cost reduction efforts are more visible and can be more tangibly claimed as "results" for recognition than can the avoidance of hypothetical costs that could have been planned into the system.

Neither cost avoidance nor cost reduction should be emphasized to the exclusion of the other. Ideally, activities would be designed with such excellence in cost avoidance that there are no feasible cost reductions to be made after operations begin. In the real world, this is rarely feasible because: (1) limited time is available before operations must begin; (2) many opportunities to reduce costs do not become apparent until after operations are in process for some time, learning has occurred, and operational problems are encountered; and (3) in a dynamic society, change is ever-present, and such changes continuously generate opportunities for further reductions in costs by using new materials, equipment, processes, and systems that previously were not available.

Consequently, the realistic optimum approach is to do the best that is feasible through cost avoidance using the time that is available prior to beginning a program. This effort, however, generally is secondary to developing program effectiveness. Obviously, this is a real-world compromise that is commonly encountered. Later, after the program is operationally successful, cost reduction efforts can be initiated as a means of achieving more program effectiveness for the resources used.

The same methods can be used for both cost avoidance and cost reduction. Some of the methods already have been described earlier in this Manual: Pareto analysis, brainstorming, creative questions, process charts, and value analysis. Furthermore, the process of planning is, in fact, an exercise in cost avoidance. Cost reduction is, in effect, a part of replanning that strives to improve the future over the past.

The following are some additional methods that can be used to reduce costs. They are listed in EXHIBIT 10.3.

EXHIBIT 10.3

SOME METHODS FOR REDUCING COSTS OF PROGRAMS

(1) Cost reduction committee

(2) Standardization

(3) Personnel utilization studies

(4) Material utilization studies

(5) Methods engineering

(1) Cost reduction committees. A cost reduction committee is a group (usually 3 to 8 persons) that work together on a periodic basis to find, consider, investigate, and process cost reduction possibilities. Usually, a committee includes persons representing several types of responsibilities, functions, or activities. This diversity helps to obtain sensitivity (awareness) to possible opportunities and objectivity in their investigation.

These committees frequently operate as improvement committees instead of limiting their investigations just to cost reduction possibilities. Such improvements as safety, service improvement, and convenience often are considered.

Cost reduction committees also provide opportunity for participative contributions of others: employees, volunteers, clients, etc. They assist in promoting understanding and cooperation through focusing various people with (often) divergent opinions on problems of common concern.

A committee starts by investigating one, two, or three possibilities for cost reduction, usually meeting weekly or at least bi-weekly. Some member of the committee is assigned (or volunteers) to lead the study of each cost reduction project. The project leader asks others, as needed, to work with him. A CR project team works together to pursue its cost reduction (gather information, analyze data, draw conclusions) between meetings of the whole CR committee.

The committee meeting is when the project teams make their reports, and the CR committee makes any needed modification in the reports for them to receive final action or approval. Usually, a continuing record of current projects is maintained by the chairman of the committee, so that everyone knows the status of each project at any time.

Each project group is disbanded when its project is complete. Cost reduction committees, however, usually are continuing.

(2) Standardization. One of the most important factors making possible the current industrial age is standardization. The cost of making each part, each service, or each activity different--or, at least, completely different--is very expensive, often prohibitive.

Standardization usually is in one of two forms: (1) standardizing what is done--the product, service, or activity; or (2) standardizing how it is done--the method, procedure, or approach. The former is feasible when the end product can be the same (meals, games, protection, transportation, etc.), whereas the latter is necessary when the product must vary (counsel, referral, repairs, etc.).

Standardizing the end result (what is done) provides a uniform product of some type. Developing uniform, standard meals (that vary from meal to meal, but may be repeated periodically, such as weekly) enables volume purchasing, seasonal buying, minimum scrap,

and continuous improvement of the standard meals. Standard transportation (routes, stops, schedules, detour policy, etc.) provides a predictable, just service to all, even though it may not deviate for the convenience of an individual preference (flexibilities can be built into standard services, however).

Standardizing the means (how it is done) rather than the ends gives more flexibility or variability in the service or product provided. If the service or product must be tailored to the client needs, then the standardization is limited largely (although not entirely) to the means for providing the end results. Standard procedures for handling clients in an information and referral program, standard forms for documenting information in counseling programs, and standard questions for quizzing the client who telephones in for repair services (to make sure that the right type of repair service is provided--are examples of standardizing the approach while allowing maximum flexibility and adaptability in the results provided.

(3) Personnel utilization. People are expensive, in fact, more expensive than we usually realize. A person whose salary is $8,000 per year will work approximately 2,000 hours. Assume a 25% out-of-pocket fringe benefits cost (insurance, unemployment compensation, social security, etc.), raising the $8,000 to $10,000. Dividing by 2,000 hours, this gives $5.00 per hour, or over 8¢ per minute. Thus, each minute not worked (that could be) is 8¢ of unearned income, or cost incurred for which equivalent service was not performed.

There are many opinions on what makes people work or avoid work, how to motivate people, and how to obtain their wholehearted participation. No one has developed a universal formula for spurring people to be productive. Consequently, motivational schemes are not included in this manual. Many books are available on the subject.

The three methods of improving personnel utilization that are presented here are: (1) reducing idle time, (2) raising work and results accomplished during time worked, and (3) reducing staffing emergencies due to illness, tardiness, resignations, etc.

The amount and location of idle time can be determined by work sampling: making numerous observations at random, and determining the percentage of time that each person is idle. Concentrate on those persons having the largest percentage of idle time. Some of the means for possible improvement are: (1) combining two jobs in one person, (2) find other needed activity to fill in idle spots, and (3) form work teams so that work sharing and work cooperation are developed.

Increasing the output per hour worked also has many possibilities. The principle here is to increase the results performed without excessive burden on the worker. The adage, "work smarter, not harder," applies here, although both often are necessary and

justifiable. Examples of useful approaches are: (1) eliminate unnecessary or unproductive activity or tasks, (2) allocate simpler tasks that are not strictly time-oriented as fill tasks for otherwise idle time, and (3) provide improved, more productive equipment, facilities arrangement, and work flow.

Unexpected absenteeism causes considerable problem in using people effectively. While there is no ideal solution to absorbing these fluctuations in employee availability, there are methods to ease the crisis and continue the services to be performed. Some of these methods are: (1) have some personnel who can fill in for anyone who is absent, (2) have most or all persons trained in 2 or more activities, (3) develop work teams, so that flexibility exists within the work group, (4) attend the more critical or important tasks during periods of absenteesim and save non-urgent work to be done during normal or slack periods, (5) take into account an expected level of absenteeism in planning the number of persons to be employed, and (6) have a list of persons who like to work occasionally but not regularly, and use them to fill in for those absent or in unfilled positions.

(4) Material utilization. We often have no concept of how much food we waste, unnecessary energy we use, paper we don't need, and trash we generate. Even cursory study of material useage usually can generate considerable savings. Many of these savings are actually double savings: financial savings that can be directed to other uses and the unused materials that may reduce the drain on the world's remaining supply of depletable resources. Every little bit counts.

Many techniques can be used for detecting opportunities for saving materials. Among them are: (1) examine the waste, (2) stop or reduce the use and see what happens, and (3) search for better substitutes.

Look in the garbage cans and trash cans. Examine carefully. Or, whatever the process, product, or service, examine the scrap and trash. This technique is used extensively and is revealing and instructive. You find what food clients don't eat, if their portions are too large, what forms and other paper may be non-essential, and the small-size containers that may imply wasteful purchasing.

Stop or reduce material use and watch the results. This is done in forms improvement by failing to send out a form or report, or sending it less often, and observing the reaction. Often nothing happens; nobody observes the change; nobody was using it anyway. The same technique can be used in trials at modifying transportation services, contents in meals, and other services.

Searching for better substitutes does not always imply less expensive substitutes. The substitute can be less expensive, but it also can be more beneficial, have less waste, have reusable containers, require less maintenance, require less time to prepare or use, or eliminate need for something else. Material utilization

is one of the most lucrative areas for cost savings in many programs. It is also a source of graft and kick back that can be expensive.

(5) Methods engineering. Improving work methods and work processes often can yield considerable cost savings. The objective in methods engineering is to increase the needed output of the work performed. This can take many forms, but generally falls in three categories: (1) work simplification, (2) work amplification, and (3) non-work reduction.

Work simplification involves eliminating unnecessary, non-productive motions, so that each motion or effort adds productively to the results needed. It includes designing work patterns that are smooth, rhythmical, and comfortable. And it takes into account the physiological and psychological capabilities and limitations of the human being, and perhaps of the specific person involved in the job. The work task is designed so that the employee can do the job and do it efficiently and effectively.

Work amplification concerns providing tools, equipment, and facilitators that extend or amplify the output of the worker. Often, we fail to recognize the dynamic development of new equipment and devices that can increase, and sometimes multiply, the real output of an employee.

Non-work reduction, of course, refers to replacing idle time with productive effort. Idle time must first be found, then activity can be modified to make better use of this time. This was discussed in the section on "personnel utilization."

Costs can be saved, and cost savings can be allocated for other or expanded program needs. Cost savings mean more Aging needs can be filled with the limited resources available. The methods briefly described for saving costs are proven techniques that can be applied to Aging programs and on activity in organizations involved in Aging concerns.

d. Multiples and Multipliers

Multiples are activities that produce more than one benefit. The additional benefits can be direct or indirect, and can be by-products or simultaneous products (or benefits) from a single program. Multipliers are activities that increase or multiply the beneficial results of one or more other activities or programs. Multipliers may strengthen or reinforce another program, they may serve as a catalyst to make things happen, or they may provide direct interaction such that one or both programs can produce amplified results due to the joint action.

Although these two concepts are not pursued directly in the business world, they are implicit in many programs and efforts to improve efficiency of operations and productivity of equipment and programs.

Multiples and multipliers are two different concepts, with different approaches involved in their accomplishment. Nevertheless, the two can, and do, interact sometimes, further reinforcing or amplifying the results of each other. They are presented here as separate topics so that each is recognized and understanding is achieved concerning the application of each. The methods are listed in EXHIBIT 10.4.

(1) Multiple benefits. These are common. For example, the housewife, at the same time may be preparing dinner, babysitting, serving as a family telephone answering service, providing reassurance to the children at play, protecting the family property, and mentally planning for the evening's activities.

In programs for the Aging, single programs or specific activities can produce multiple benefits, even filling more than one need of the Aging. Examples are shown under each of several ways these multiple benefits can be planned to occur.

(a) Direct by-product. This is a benefit that results directly from a program developed to provide a different benefit. For example, a central meals program is likely to result in considerable social recreation activity and benefits. The social recreation is a by-product of the meals program. Recognizing this possibility, effort can be extended to helping the people to become acquainted, decorating the facility to make it friendly and comfortable, and even providing arrangements for a period of after-meal games or entertainment.

(b) Direct, simultaneous products. This is where the same activity provides two principal, simultaneous types of service. For example, a program providing regular, routine telephone contact with the Aging, or especially shut-in Aging, could provide security reassurance and also information and referral assistance. The telephoners could be trained to provide at least a certain state of both programs, and to follow up with additional, specialized counsel or assistance when needed.

(c) Indirect benefits. These are incidental, but valuable benefits that can occur in the process of providing a principal service. They are similar to by-products in nature, but are less direct in their action. For example, a home repair service can provide valuable reporting of visible needs that should be assisted by outreach counselors.

(2) Multiplier benefits. These, too, are rather common in everyday life. Better nutrition may improve health and reduce medical problems; improved housing may add to the security and safety; good clothing may stimulate better social and recreational participation; and better job opportunities may amplify the interest in education even back in the early grades.

Multipliers are programs or activities that amplify or even make possible the needed results in other programs. This is

EXHIBIT 10.4

EXAMPLES OF METHODS OF MULTIPLES AND MULTIPLIERS

(1) Some methods for achieving multiple benefits

- (a) Direct by-products
- (b) Direct, simultaneous products
- (c) Indirect benefits

(2) Some methods of achieving multiplier benefits

- (a) A program that strengthens another
- (b) Catalyst programs to facilitate others
- (c) Direct interaction among programs for mutual reinforcement

especially obvious in facilitating services, but not limited to them. Some types of multipliers are described in the following paragraphs.

(a) Programs that strengthen or reinforce another. This can take various forms of influence such that the results of one activity causes greater interest or possibility for the Aging to participate in another activity. For example, a successful preventive medical program could improve the health of the Aging, resulting in their increased participation in a social and recreation program. Although the medical program was aimed directly at medical needs, it could amplify the participation and benefits in the recreation activity.

(b) Catalyst programs. A catalyst is something that does not become involved directly in a process, but it influences the process so that something happens that otherwise could not occur. Facilitating services fit into this category, as they do not serve needs of the Aging, but make possible the service of the needs. For example, people don't actually need transportation, but a transportation program may make possible other services, such as central meals, recreation, medical services, and educational development.

(c) Direct interaction. This is where interaction occurs directly between two or more programs, resulting in amplified benefits to one or more of them. For example, a program of involving the Aging directly in projects with other people and activities could involve them in such programs for the Aging (and others) as sewing and sewing instructions, home repairs, counsel, recreation leadership, and information and referral. Such reinforcement can multiply the benefits of each program.

The whole area of gaining the most program from the available resources can be strengthened by taking advantage of opportunities for multiples and multipliers. The concepts are common knowledge, but countless opportunities for achieving effectiveness and efficiency through methods based on these concepts are commonly overlooked.

e. Helping Aging with Aging

Boredom is deadly. People seem to need to be needed, want to do things, and like to see good results. So, if the Aging can be involved in the work of programs for the Aging, is this not excellent therapy for them as well as valuable input for the programs? The Aging are a vital resource that has hardly been tapped. Yet, their involvement provides double payoff: to them and to the Aging served by the programs.

Self help is not new. For decades, the American Friends Service Committee (Quakers) has sponsored numerous programs helping people to help themselves and involving them in helping others. The U. S. Agency for International Development has utilized this approach in many of its projects, and, more recently, the Peace Corps has made good use of the concept.

The above programs, and others, include Aging or retired persons as staff, workers, or advisors in their programs. Some organizations specialize in sending retired persons all over the world to assist in various programs. And a very extensive program specialized in involving the Aging in service activities is the Retired Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP).

Obviously, the Aging can contribute, are contributing, and are personally benefitting from the contributions of themselves in many programs. Consequently, it is logical to plan into Aging programs ample opportunity for the Aging to participate in the various tasks and work involved.

The feasible types of Aging involvement is almost without limit. The following are a few examples: home repairs, personal counsel, telephone reassurance, meals programs, information and referral, personal guide, emergency assistance, personal care, educational activity, and social-recreation programs. Often, they can perform just about any activity a younger person can perform. Age is not necessarily an impediment. And many impediments sometimes associated with the elderly also are found in persons many years younger.

There is, of course, need for involving the Aging with objective consideration for their individual constraints, needs, and preferences. Some guidelines useful in achieving this are listed in EXHIBIT 10.5 and are discussed in the following sections.

(1) Use the Aging widely. The interests, capabilities, and possibilities of the Aging are just about as diverse as for the general population. Consequently, the Aging can be used (as volunteers or as paid employees) in positions or tasks ranging from service on advisory boards to the detailed tasks of planning, coordination and operation of the programs and projects. They can perform management, technical, and operating tasks. They can counsel and they can serve meals. They can do just about anything anyone else can do.

(2) Build their participation gradually. It is easy to get anyone involved "over their heads." While bordeom is "deadly," overcommitment is frustrating and unpleasant. Consequently, it is vital to expose the person to the new responsibility no faster than he can adjust comfortably, and continue to be satisfied with his involvement. Too much too soon, or too much obligation at any time, can cause the person to withdraw from his commitment entirely. Often, it seems easier for the person to excuse himself from an obligation completely than it is to ask relief from a part of it.

(3) Provide for limited periods of service. Usually, it is best to request a volunteer to give his time in a commitment for a limited period rather than for an indefinite period. This way, if there are inconveniences, frustrations, or burdens involved, they are easier to tolerate than if one can see no end to the assignment. Especially do senior people realize that the future is unpredictable;

EXHIBIT 10.5

SOME GUIDELINES IN USING THE AGING TO HELP THE AGING

(1) Use the Aging widely

(2) Build their participation gradually

(3) Provide for limited periods of service

(4) Develop the Aging through progressive involvement

(5) Prevent participation from becoming a burden

(6) Minimize their frustrations

(7) Tailor their serving to their time and preferences

(8) Allow for their individual constraints

(9) Allow for contingencies

(10) Cover their expenses

long experience has taught them that. Consequently, short-term commitments are more comfortable, and one can project himself easier into the near future than much beyond. We don't like to take commitments that we may need to resign at a future date, and the longer the commitment, the larger the likelihood of this occurring. Often, too, we do our best work for a period, then slack off as bordeom results from routine and lack of change. Time span depends on many factors, but generally should range from a few weeks to a year.

(4) Develop the Aging through progressive involvement. Learning, personal development, and interest can progress, in many persons, by gradually increasing the breadth or depth of their involvement. What is a challenge today becomes a step to tomorrow's challenge tomorrow. If there is no further challenge or no learning experience, the boredom replaces development with decadence. In contrast, if each person is provided with tasks that challenge him, but are easily within his grasp, and those tasks later are replaced with other tasks that provide a new challenge--perhaps a new level of challenge--then personal development continues to progress. This is not in contrast with item (3) above, as limited periods of service actually enable choices (to both parties) of reappointment, appointment to a new challenge, or a delay before reconsideration.

(5) Prevent participation from becoming a burden. Often we don't realize that life sometimes is complex and hectic, with conflicting demands and many choices to make. Perhaps we realize this in our own lives but somehow think that others have things simpler. But we see all of our own, and only part of any other life. Recognizing this, it is vital that tasks, for volunteers and employees, be designed and arranged to be reasonable, not too demanding, and, if possible, permit flexibility to adapt to the person's personal needs. Some people are challenged, with dynamic response, by extraordinary tasks, problems, or opportunities. But many others are not. Or, perhaps each person is challenged by different kinds and degrees of task. Often, the individual is in the best position to indicate what he can do and would like to do.

(6) Minimize their frustrations. Frustrations raise the likelihood that the volunteer, or employee, will resign his duties--or just stop coming around. Arguments, conflicts, tasks beyond his immediate grasp, inadequate training or instruction, and other situations that overtest one's patience can add up to resignation. Too, one can resign from a task, by half-heartedly filling it, while continuing to carry out the motions. Staff should try to eliminate sources of problems and frustrations, where feasible; and they should help the Aging to handle, overlook or refer to them the frustrations that do occur.

(7) Tailor their serving to their time and preferences. The Aging, even volunteers, have needs or obligations that can conflict with assigned tasks. Volunteers may be unwilling to serve at certain hours, but very anxious to do so at times that fit their schedules. This is where communications are essential. If you know the individual and his preferences, or determine these from him, the

arrangements often can be made mutually satisfactory from the beginning. Otherwise, it is highly likely that drop-out will occur.

(8) Allow for their individual constraints. Each person is different. He has his own, unique set of interests, problems, capabilities, limitations, and ways. If we program people without taking into effect the unique characteristics of each individual, we are likely to be unsuccessful in arranging a good and beneficial participation of the Aging. While mediocre participation can occur without attention to the uniqueness of the individuals, full, wholehearted involvement is unlikely to result. Perhaps, in many cases, a good match between the individual and an available assignment is not feasible. But if the person realizes that you have done and will do your best to take full account of his factors in his participation, this, itself, is a motivational factor.

(9) Allow for contingencies. Often, each of us has matters arise that interfere with what we had planned to do. The Aging are no exception. They, too, have illnesses, unexpected problems, and conflicting needs to arise, even at the last moment. Activity plans, where feasible, should include contingency plans that can be put into effect, as needed, with a minimum of difficulty or program interference. Not all contingencies cause serious interruption. Those that are more likely to occur, and, if they do occur, can be serious problems, should be considered in planning: to reduce their chance of occurrence and to reduce their inpact if they occur. Examples of action to reduce their occurrence include: matching the person and the task, selecting persons with high dependability for critical tasks, and establishing a reliable procedure for advance notice on problems or likely problems that could cause serious interruptions. Examples of reducing the impact of contingency problems are: arranging standby substitutes who are on call for helping, overstaffing to allow some slack for emergencies, training of some persons to serve in several capacities to allow job-shifting flexibility, and developing other contingency plans for likely or critical possibilities.

(10) Cover their expenses. When arranging for the Aging to help out, are you asking them to contribute time or their money or both? Very often, the Aging are asked to serve as volunteers, with no mention or arrangement for expenses such as: meals, transportation, lodging away from home, phone calls, postage, materials, or supplies. Yet, these expenses--and payment for time in salaries, wages, or fees--are provided to persons who are employed to work for the same agencies. The Aging may not be in a position to provide for these expenses, and this could prevent his participation. You may never know why he did not volunteer, however. Usually, there are potential compromises: arrangements to provide for the expenses or arranging for the specific needs. Perhaps staff, who receive expense reimbursement, could carry volunteers in their cars; the program could provide the supplies needed by the volunteers; or other ways to absorb the expenses.

The Aging benefit many ways when they help in programs and activities. To exclude them is tragic; to include them is multiple service.

Evaluating results is more than checking on program or organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Evaluating involves assuring that results are communicated to the proper people for action: commendations for excellence and corrective actions for the weaknesses. In this way, programs can continue for long periods to be dynamic, providing valuable services, and servicing the real needs of the Aging.

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Note: The numbers preceding each bibliography listing are the numbers of the same listings in the complete BIBLIOGRAPHY at the end of this Manual.

PART III

USING THE MANUAL

The purpose of PART III is to provide brief instructions as to how the Manual can be used most effectively.

The Manual is designed for use in training and as a reference. As a training manual, it can be used for self-study, small-group study, or lecture workshops. As a reference manual, it can be used to find methods applicable to a specific problem or to refine further your understanding and use of specific methods. Many features in the organization and construction of the Manual are for the purpose of making it easy and convenient to use.

The Manual is to use, to assist planning the delivery of services for the Aging, so that those services can be effective and efficient in providing for the needs of the Aging. PART III prepares the reader to make the most use of the Manual.

11. USE AS A TRAINING MANUAL

PLANNING FOR THE AGING is prepared as a training and reference manual. The chapters are designed for convenient learning and use, and the sequence is arranged to promote progressive insight, understanding, and capability in the concepts and methods of planning.

As a training manual, it can be used equally well for self-study, small-group team learning, or workshop training. Throughout the manual, however, the material is especially prepared for participative learning. The author believes that effective, efficient learning must involve the learner in the learning process. Consequently, the concepts are depicted in relatively specific, tangible terms, and examples are given or can be drawn by the learner using the tangible points in the text. The specific examples and points enable the learner, individually or in groups, to see the meaning of concepts through selected application of them. This provides a basic foundation from which the general principles, concepts, and methods can be grasped more readily.

The organization of the Manual is developed especially to assist its use in learning how to plan and, more tangibly, learning to plan. Chapters 1 and 2 prepare for the learning experience, Chapter 3 provides a complete cycle of planning in somewhat simplified form, and Chapters 4-10 expand on each step in the planning process.

After gaining an appreciation of planning in Chapters 1 and 2, Chapter 3 should be comprehended thoroughly before proceeding to Part II (Chapters 4-10). Chapter 3 provides an understanding of the whole planning process by taking the reader through all seven steps of planning applied to a case example. In order to keep the example focused on the process rather than the methods, only one method is used for each of the seven steps of the process.

Once the process of planning is understood from Chapter 3, the seven chapters of Part II can be used to expand and strengthen each of the seven steps. In each of these chapters, one of the seven steps of planning is explored, and five or more methods are presented in the five sections of each chapter. This enables the progressive strengthening of the seven steps through either of the following sequences of study: (1) taking the first step (Chapter 4) and thoroughly grasping the methods presented in all 5 sections of Chapter 4 before proceeding to the second step in Chapter 5, and so on through each of the seven steps in Chapters 4-10; or (2) studying the first (a) section of each of the seven chapters (4-10) sequentially, then cycle through the second (b) section of the seven chapters, followed, in the same manner, by the third (c), fourth (d) and fifth (3) sections of each chapter in turn. The author prefers the former (1) procedure, thoroughly exploring and grasping the methods of one step before proceeding on to the next step. Both procedures, however, provide effective learning of the methods, and the selection of which approach to use is merely a personal matter.

The author recommends a combination of self-study and group study in learning the material in this Manual. Self-study enables one to read and re-read over and over until difficult points are clear. It also allows one to study methods and important points in depth, until their meaning and potential are completely evident. Finally, self-study provides opportunity to practice examples at one's own speed, learning from one's mistakes without embarrassment.

Group study, on the other hand, permits group sharing of insight and examples from the experiences of the various members of the group. The contributions of each person tend to trigger relevant thoughts and contributions from others. Each person, with his unique background, adds to the clarity and content in the learning process, like a team of craftsmen building a house. In this type of group study, each person is reinforced by the others on the team, so that there is interactive team teaching in the learning process. More knowledge and illustrations are brought to focus on the topics in group study, such that each person benefits from the participation of himself and the others. Furthermore, this approach to learning is highly motivational, and this makes learning easier and more interesting.

These two approaches to study are complementary, with neither replacing the other. Ideally, the self-study, as homework, is complemented by periodic group-study in the classroom or other environment. In this way, the unique advantages of both approaches are combined to yield the best results. Preferably, the self-study and the group-study are carried out over the same period of time. This is not essential, however. Self-study can precede or follow (or both) the group study. Circumstances frequently determine what is feasible.

In many situations, group-study is not feasible, and self-study may be the only option available. Yet, self-study often requires considerable dedication and self-discipline to compensate for the absence of group motivation. Accordingly, the Manual is designed to be largely self-explanatory and to include a minimum of technical jargon so that it can be more easily used in a self-study situation.

Several features have been included in the design of the Manual to assist in its use for learning and training. These are as follows:

(1) Generous use of exhibits. Each step of the planning process (Chapter 3) uses at least one exhibit, and each of the five sections of each of the seven chapters (4-10) describing methods of planning includes at least one exhibit.

(2) Exhibits sized for visual aids. All exhibits are positioned across the length of the page to provide a rectangular shape, corresponding to the shape of many projection screens. All pages, including exhibits, are prepared within dimensions of 7-1/4" x 9", enabling all material to fit easily within the maximum dimension of 9-1/2" x 9-1/2" of most transparency overhead projectors. Transparencies

can be made directly from the exhibits of the Manual for use in training programs.

(3) A cycle of planning. Chapter 3 leads the reader through a full cycle of planning before exposing him to the numerous methods of planning in Chapters 4-10. This enables the reader to gain an overview first, to feel comfortable with the basic planning process, and then to expand this basic knowledge on a continued, step-by-step procedure.

(4) A practice grid. EXHIBIT 11-1 is a blank grid that can be copied and used for practice exercises. The grid is a very versatile and useful device in planning. While grids in the real situation often need to be much larger than the one used here, this one serves very well in the learning-practice situation. It is suggested that EXHIBIT 11-1 be left blank, and that copies be made for all use of the exhibit.

Learning to plan can be both interesting and productive. The whole manual is a learning-training instrument for both self-study and group-study. By study and use of the Manual, planning can become a natural, habitual approach to program development and operation. In this way, both effectiveness and efficiency can be enhanced, with results that reinforce each other, yielding achievements far exceeding those otherwise feasible.

EXHIBIT 11.1

12. USE AS A REFERENCE MANUAL

PLANNING FOR THE AGING is designed to be a useful manual for continued reference. The methods and principles of planning in the Manual can be reviewed as needed, and can be applied more easily by referring to their descriptive details in the Manual. The examples can demonstrate applicability of the methods, and the lists in the text and in some exhibits can serve as checklists in planning for the Aging.

Many of the planning methods, described in Chapters 4-10, can be applied in more of the steps than the one step in which each method is demonstrated. After becoming familiar with a method, confidence in its use well beyond that described in the Manual is likely to develop. This should be expected, and, in fact, should be cultivated. In this way, a wider assortment of methods evolves for application to each step of planning. For example, grids are applicable not only in finding the needs (Chapter 6), but also in meeting the people (Chapter 4), choosing your objectives (Chapter 7), and planning the program (Chapter 9); process charts are useful in learning the facts (Chapter 5) and evaluating results (Chapter 10) as well as in planning the program (Chapter 9); and brainstorming can be used in meeting the people (Chapter 1) and planning the program (Chapter 9) as well as in examining paths (Chapter 8).

Several features have been incorporated in the construction of the Manual in order to facilitate its use as a reference manual. These are as follows:

(1) Detailed contents. A detailed table of contents is provided. It includes the titles of each section in each chapter as well as the titles of each exhibit within each chapter. This serves as a quick reference to any specific topic or exhibit, so that the methods and principles can be most accessible for application.

(2) Dual bibliographies. A complete bibliography is listed at the end of the Manual, and those bibliographical references relevant to each chapter are listed at the end of the respective chapter. The reference number of each bibliographical item is the same in the listings at the end of the chapter as is shown in the complete bibliography at the end of the Manual. In this way, the bibliographical references are most accessible to the chapters where they are especially relevant, enabling further study of the principles and methods described in the respective chapters. On the other hand, the complete bibliography enables the reader to peruse the full range of listed references in order to compare materials, to expand the application of each reference, and to construct his own pattern of expanded study.

(3) Special page numberings. Two unique features are incorporated

in the numbering of the pages in the Manual in order to assist its use as a reference. First, each chapter is individually numbered, with the chapter number and the page number of that chapter. For example, page 8-5 is the fifth page of Chapter 8. By being familiar with the topic of each chapter, you can turn to that chapter without the usual delay of first referring to the table of contents. Second, the page numbers are in the upper right corner of each page. This is to facilitate finding any page by quickly flipping the page corners.

(4) A chapter for each step. Each step in the planning process is covered in its own separate chapter. For example, step 1 is detailed in Chapter 4, step 2 in Chapter 5, etc. through step 7 in Chapter 10. There is a distinct purpose for this. Each of us has both strengths and weaknesses. Some are lacking or negligent on the human factors, while some are lacking in attention to factual detail or in the analysis of information. By segregating the steps of planning into their separate chapters, it is more convenient to concentrate on strengthening a specific step and to refer to that step quickly as needed.

There are many ways to enhance the value of reference information. Often, however, these are based upon the particular needs of the individual and his preference for the type or form of reference material with which he works best. The following are three suggestions for expanding the usefulness of this Manual by supplementing it with related information:

(1) List preferred methods and references. Your activity in each planning step can be aided by noting the methods that you find especially useful to your needs, and listing references that convey useful information about those methods. If this is done for each step as you use different methods, you will accumulate a handy guide to expedite your selection of methods for planning.

(2) Develop checklists. Throughout the Manual, there are lists that can be used as checklists. Many of these lists, however, are most useful if they are adapted to your unique situation and circumstances. Starting with lists in the Manual, you can develop checklists such as: sources of funds, selected persons, monthly routines, problems most likely to be encountered, and modes and media for public relations. Such checklists, personalized to your needs and circumstances, can help adapt the Manual to be most useful to you and your associates.

(3) Expand the bibliographies. The bibliographies in the Manual provide a selected group of references. This is a starting point, as there are many other references that could have been listed. You may find others that you prefer over some of those listed. Many of the listed references have bibliographies that can guide you to other publications that may

include other references. The value of a reference list is based largely on how much it can assist you with your needs. Consequently, personalizing the Manual's bibliographies with your own additions or notations can make them more useful to you.

PLANNING FOR THE AGING is intended to be a useful guide to planning the development and operation of programs for the Aging. Rarely will all of the methods in the Manual be used in the planning of a specific program. Yet, all of the methods can be useful under the right circumstances. Thus, they are available, as a reference manual, to be used as needed, selected and adapted by you so that you can best plan the services needed by the Aging in your area.

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